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MODERN TIMES AND THE LIVING PAST

ELSON

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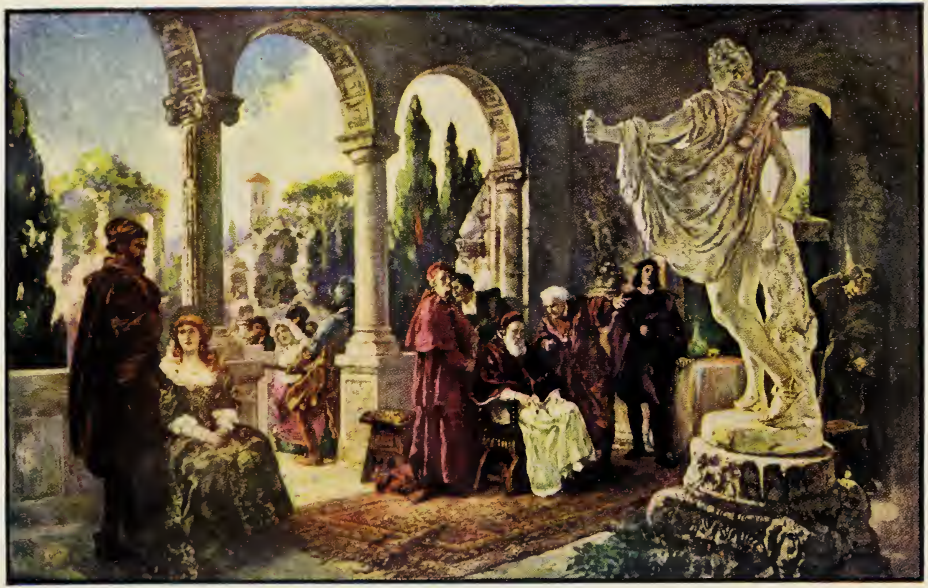

Artists of the Sixteenth Century Viewing a Famous Statue of Apollo. (Note, page 311)

MODERN TIMES
AND THE LIVING PAST

BY

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PREFACE

To present the history of the world in a single volume and to make the story at the same time attractive and useful to young readers is a most difficult task. Only the general sweep of the great current of events can be followed; only the salient features that contributed most to the development of the nations can be included.

The two questions that must constantly be in the mind of the writer are, first, what to choose for the text, and second, how to present it. As to the first, he must be able to appraise historic values; he must present that which will lead the reader to visualize the past so as best to grasp the problems that contributed most to the social, moral, economic, and political development of the peoples whom he is studying. Thus by acquiring a correct knowledge of his historical inheritance, the reader will understand and appreciate the principles on which are based the ideals and institutions of the civilization of the present.

As to the second, the method of presenting history, especially for young readers, these facts must be borne in mind: The great majority of high-school pupils will never become specialists in history. Intensive scientific study from the sources is therefore out of place in the secondary schools, except for an occasional diversion. It is recommended that classes be led to dip now and then into the source fountains; but if confined to this form of study, pupils will leave school with no knowledge of the great march of human events, and with little or no interest to continue the study in the future. Moreover, they will miss the culture and the intense interest that pertains to the great human story.

In preparing this book I have given large space to the social and industrial life of the people, their achievements and their progress; at the same time I have endeavored to retain the thread of the political narrative, especially in the accounts of

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ancient Greece and Rome and of the great nations of modern Europe. The study of modern Europe is given in cross sections with constant reference to the relations of the various countries with one another. As the history of our own country is a study by itself, it is not included in this volume.

More space has been given to the study of England than to that of any other country, because of its greater importance to American students, and in order to obviate the necessity of making it a separate study in the crowded curriculum of the high school.

To the modern period I have given much greater space than to the ancient and medieval periods. Every intelligent citizen must have some knowledge of what we owe to the far past; but more vital is a knowledge of the great problems of our own times, and to these a fuller treatment has been given.

The wars of the world could not be omitted because of the great part they have played in human progress, but the account of them has been condensed to the smallest space.

Wherever possible I have kept the human interest in the foreground and have deemed it best to give considerable space to the leading characters in history at the expense of leaving unmentioned the names of many who usually find a place even in condensed histories.

The same is true in the narration of events. Great numbers of facts usually told in books of this character have been omitted to gain space for a fuller treatment of the greater movements that have most affected the development of the nations.

My constant aim has been to present a book that will be easy to teach and at the same time interesting as well as useful to the youthful reader. It is hoped, furthermore, that this book may be useful to the general reader, may prove a pleasant review to those who already know the history, and may furnish to busy people, who have not the time to pursue the subject further, an intelligent elemental knowledge of the great story of the development of human civilization.

HENRY W. ELSON.

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MODERN TIMES AND THE LIVING PAST

CHAPTER I

PREHISTORIC MAN

I. Stages of Development

1. Historic and Prehistoric Times. — There was a time, many ages ago, when not a man in the world could read. There were no books, no writing, no alphabet. At length, after thousands of years, we know not how many thousands, men began to invent an alphabet and to make books. They then began to leave a written record of their own doings. This we call History.

The long ages preceding the time when men learned to write are called Prehistoric Times. The period since men began to write is known as Historic Times.

The various nations emerged from the prehistoric period to the historic period at different times. The people of the Nile Valley and those of the Euphrates (u-frā′tēz) Valley reached the historic period several thousand years before the time of Christ (B.C.), the Greeks about 900 B.C., the Romans 600 or 700 B.C., and the Teutonic peoples more than a thousand years later. There are many tribes on the earth who have not yet reached the historic stage. Among these are some of the American Indians, some Negroes of Africa, the "Black Fellows" of Australia, and many of the natives of the East Indies.

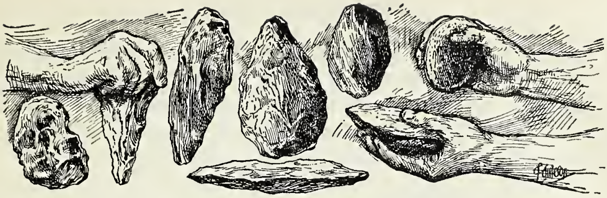
2. Prehistoric Man and the Animals. — Through unknown ages man has made his way on and up to his present stage of enlightenment. In many respects man is inferior to the lower animals. He has not the strength of the ox nor the eyesight of the eagle; he lacks the speed of the deer and the bloodhound's power of scent. But he stands immeasurably above all these creatures because of his superior intelligence, his cunning, his reasoning power. Man is the only creature on the earth that uses tools or fire or wears clothing, the only creature that speaks an articulate language, the only creature that has a moral and religious instinct. All these characteristics of man developed slowly during the prehistoric ages.

3. **Epochs of Development.** — The long period of man's advance in the use of tools and weapons is divided into four ages: (1) the Rough Stone age, (2) the Polished Stone age, (3) the Bronze age, and (4) the Iron age.

During the rough stone or paleolithic (pā-le-o-lĭth'ic, which means old stone) age man lived almost as the animals about him. His implements of war and of the chase were made of rough stone or of bones. Many thousands of such relics have been found in the past half century in France and other countries. As time passed man learned to polish the stones, to shape them into knives, arrowheads, and stone axes or "tomahawks," as the American Indians called them. This age of polished stone implements is sometimes called the neolithic (or new stone) age. Thus primeval man gradually passed from one "age" to another, but how many thousands of years he remained in each we have no means of knowing.

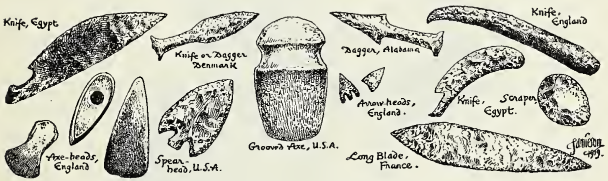
At length man came to learn the use of metals, when and how no one knows. He first used copper, but copper is too soft to make good tools. In some way it was discovered that by mixing copper with a little tin a metal is formed which is much better than either for the making of implements. The mixture is called bronze. For many centuries, known as the bronze age, this metal was used in ever-increasing quantities.

Finally, man discovered how to make use of iron, which is the most useful of all metals, and happily the most abundant. The use of metals has been of immense importance in the development of the human race. Without it our present civilization would be impossible.



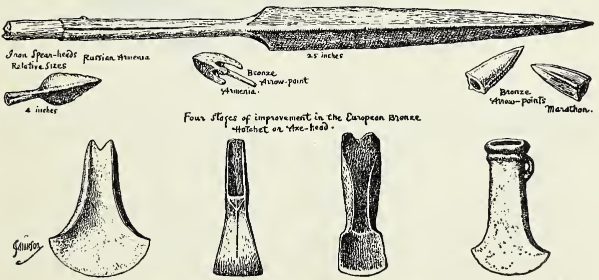
Implements of the Rough Stone Age

Fist hatchets and knives. Such implements were made by splitting and chipping stones, using another stone as a hammer for this purpose. At the right of this picture a stone knife, in the lower hand, is being shaped by chipping blows struck with the stone in the upper hand.


Knife, Egypt
Knife or Dagger Denmark
Dagger, Alabama
Knife, England
Arrow-heads, England.
Knife, Scraper, Egypt.
Axe-heads, England
Spear-head, U.S.A.
Grooved Axe, U.S.A.
Long Blade, France.
Jamieson 1919.

Implements of the Polished Stone Age

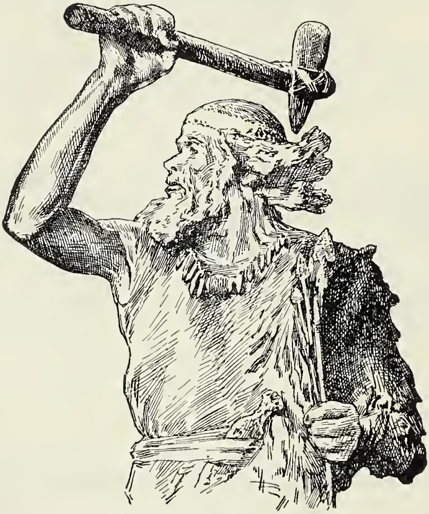
These tools, after being chipped roughly into shape, were finished by grinding and polishing.


Iron Spear-heads Relative Sizes
Russian Armenia
25 inches
4 inches
Bronze Arrow-point Armenia.
Bronze Arrow-points Marathon.
Four Stages of improvement in the European Bronze Hatchet or Axe-head.

Early Bronze and Iron Implements

The handle of a hatchet was a forked or bent stick to which the hatchet was securely bound.

4. **Economic Progress.** — Again, with respect to man's economic progress, his methods of getting a living, we may divide his career into five stages: (1) the Hunting and Fishing stage; (2) the Pastoral or Shepherd stage; (3) the Agricultural stage; (4) the Handicraft stage; and (5) the Industrial stage.



Man of the Late Neolithic Age

Restoration made under the direction of a Belgian scientist. Notice the polished stone ax with wooden handle, the stone dagger, and the flint-headed arrows. Notice also that this man has untrimmed hair and beard, and wears a necklace of teeth — trophies of the chase.

During the hunting and fishing stage men lived chiefly on game and fish. They lived in caves or rude huts, or they wandered from place to place without a fixed home. Passing from the rough stone age to the polished stone age during this time, they invented the bow and arrow, which they found of great advantage in the chase or when striving with an enemy in battle. They had no domestic animals except the dog, which, before being tamed, was a wild jackal or wolf. In this stage were many of the American Indians when discovered by the white men.

As time passed man discovered that it was far easier to make his living by keeping flocks and herds than by depending on his skill in capturing wild animals. Perhaps a hunter returning from the chase brought with him a young calf or kid, which became a pet for his children. As the animal grew the idea occurred to the family that it would be better to domesticate and raise animals than to depend wholly on the chase. Thus began the shepherd stage. The dog was already man's faithful companion. Next came the cow, the sheep, and the goat to furnish him with milk and flesh, and the horse to bear his burdens as a faithful servant. From this time he moved about from place to place less than before. He had a better home and moved only now and then, seeking new pastures. A typical example of man in the pastoral stage was the patriarch Abraham, founder of the Jewish nation.

Still later men became farmers and passed into the agricultural stage. From the beginning, no doubt, man had supplemented his diet of flesh with various grains, fruits, and vegetables as he found them growing wild. When he discovered that by cultivating the soil he could raise far more and far better products than nature furnished direct to hand, he made an important step toward a better and higher mode of life. When men became farmers they built fixed homes and ceased to wander about.

Year after year a man would till the same field and at length he came to look upon it as his own. His neighbors did the same and thus the private ownership of land came to be recognized. The agricultural stage is also characterized by the introduction of slavery. During the hunting and pastoral stages it was not practical to hold slaves, as a master could make use of them only by giving them arms and placing them on a level with himself; but when a man became a farmer he could make use of a captive by putting him to work. Most of the early slaves were captives taken in war. Before this stage captives were usually put to death. Plato was not far wrong in saying that the introduction of slavery was a humane act and an advance in civilization. The ancient Greeks and Romans and the European peoples of the Middle Ages lived in the agricultural stage.

Next came the handicraft stage, during which man slowly advanced in the production of goods and implements. Manufacturing was done by hand (as the word signifies) and each family supplied nearly all of its own wants. In this stage we find the American colonists before the war of the Revolution.

Finally, we have the industrial stage. This is characterized by great inventions, by world-wide commercial activity, and by the production of goods in colossal quantities. It is the stage in which we are living.

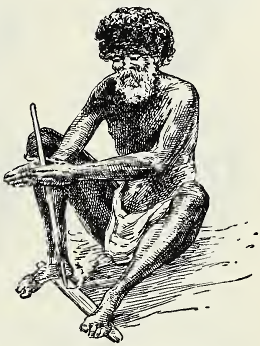
5. **Political Evolution.** — Man is a social being. Like the buffaloes that roam in herds, or the birds that flock together, man seeks the companionship of his fellows. It is impossible for men to live alone and independent of one another. The large group in which they live we call society.

Social life is impossible without a code of rules or laws by which the individual is restrained from doing things that would injure his fellows, and through which the social body may do for the individual what he cannot do for himself, such as constructing roads and bridges, building schoolhouses, and defending him against enemies. The regulating of the social group is called government. All our nearest interests are inseparably connected with government.

The origin of human government lies far back in the past, even beyond the dawn of history. The earliest governments were no doubt those of mere family groups, the father, sometimes the mother, being the head of the family or clan. Next followed the patriarchal form, which included also more distant kindred and servants, as in the case of Abraham. Later came the government of the tribe, a union of many clans or families, and finally the government of the state or nation, formed by the union and commingling of many tribes. The nations are usually separated from one another by differences in language or religion, or by geographical boundaries.

6. **Language and Fire.** — In modern times no tribe of men, however savage and wild, has been found without language. Man is not endowed by nature with the gift of language, but with the power of speech, and he must make his own language. The making of a language is a spontaneous process covering a long period of time.[1]

The use of fire is no doubt of very early origin; as in the case of language, no tribe of men is without it Perhaps the first use of fire was learned through fires caused by lightning; but at length man learned to kindle a fire by rubbing sticks together. None of the lower animals has the intelligence to use fire. It is said that when an African traveler leaves his camp fire, the monkeys will sometimes gather about it and rub their hands in glee. As the fire dies out, they look on sadly, not one of them having intelligence enough to throw on a stick of wood. The ancient Greeks had a legend that the hero Prometheus (pro-mē′-thūs) brought fire from heaven and taught man its use; and that for this he was severely punished, because the gods were jealous of the growing importance of man (sec. 56).



AUSTRALIAN FIRE DRILLER

This shows how an Australian native, or "black fellow" kindles a fire. Our remote ancestors used similar methods. Some American Boy Scouts can perform this feat.

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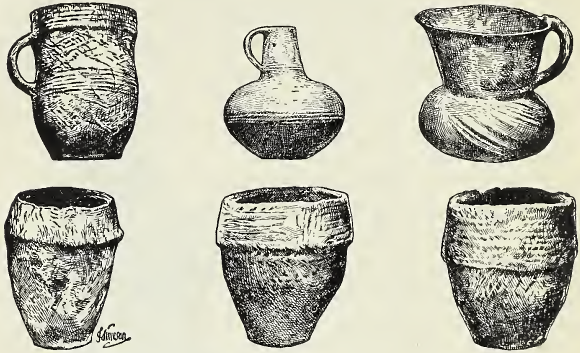
[1] It is well known that children will often make words with which to express themselves. From Albany, New York, an unusual example is reported. Two children but little past two years of age invented a considerable vocabulary and used it constantly in conversing with each other. Thus *gar* meant horse; *peer,* a ball; *odo,* to send for; *pama,* to go to sleep, and so on. No doubt language was made in this way in the infancy of the human race. See Wright's *Origin and Antiquity of Man,* p. 94.

At length man discovered that by the use of fire he could harden clay and make pottery, could make his food better by cooking it, and could smelt ores and make metal tools and weapons.



European Pottery of the Neolithic and Bronze Ages

In the British Museum. Many such dishes have been found in burial mounds where they were no doubt placed, well filled, to provide food for the dead in their journey to the next world.

It is a notable fact that the use of fire and metals, and language — all of which are indispensable to our modern civilized life — have come down to us as an inheritance from prehistoric times.

7. **History.** — The known record of the ages of the past is what we call history. It is a study of mankind in groups or nations. But history is more than a record of events ; it is a study of human nature, the most interesting of all studies, and is second only to the study of the life of our times.

History is like a coral growth. Each generation builds its fabric of civilization on that which it inherits from the past, and there are few things that we enjoy in our everyday life for which we are not indebted to the past. If you sit down to write a letter, the pen and paper you use, the table, the chair on which you sit, even the clothes you wear, are the products of machinery that required centuries to develop; and the alphabet you employ is the inheritance of thousands of years. Were it possible to blot out the past, man would be reduced to a state of savagery, without machinery or clothing, without language or tradition.

It is through history that we learn what we owe to the generations that have gone before, and can study the origin and growth of the institutions we enjoy. A knowledge of the past enables us the better to understand the duties of the present.

8. Sources of History. — Though the prehistoric races left no consciously-prepared history, modern scholarship has done much toward revealing the secrets of those early times. Weapons and tools have been unearthed in great numbers, and each one brings its mute message from the long past years.[1] Suppose an excavator of an ancient city finds a skeleton with a filled tooth in the jaw. He learns from this that a certain metal was in use at the time the person lived, and that some progress had been made in the practice of dentistry. Important facts can be learned from the earliest examples of sculpture and drawing. Inscriptions on monuments have been deciphered, and great numbers of tablets, unearthed from the ruins of buried cities, have been read by scholars who devote their lives to such studies. Songs, legends, and traditions are also of some value to the student of history. The evidences are put together piece by piece until a fairly accurate knowledge is gained of the habits, doings, and mode of life of the ancient peoples.

The American Indians wrote no books, but we learn something of how they lived and what they did before the coming of the white man by studying the mounds they built and the flint arrowheads and stone axes or tomahawks which they made, also from the rude carvings of their artists.

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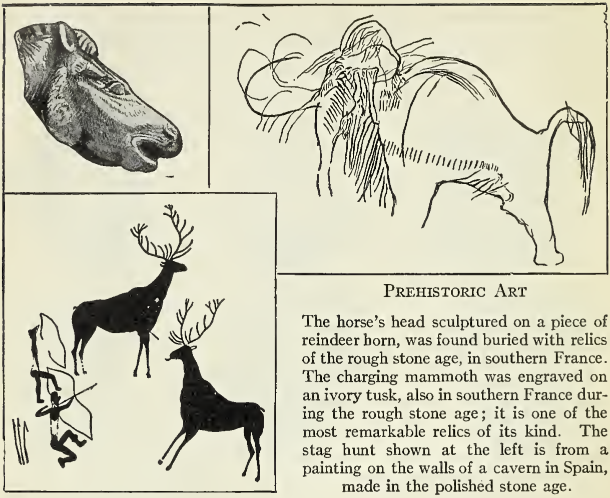
[1] More than a thousand swords, lances, and daggers were found in Schleswig in a single pit. Near Hallstatt, Austria, 980 tombs were opened, revealing great numbers of bronze and iron implements; but as there were no Roman coins, it is inferred that the tombs were made before the invasion of that country by the Romans. See Seignobos, *History of Ancient Civilization*, pp. 8, 9.



PREHISTORIC ART

The horse's head sculptured on a piece of reindeer horn, was found buried with relics of the rough stone age, in southern France. The charging mammoth was engraved on an ivory tusk, also in southern France during the rough stone age; it is one of the most remarkable relics of its kind. The stag hunt shown at the left is from a painting on the walls of a cavern in Spain, made in the polished stone age.

However much we may learn from prehistoric implements and art, written records constitute the chief source of history. These may be consciously-written historic accounts, as those of Herod′otus, Jose′phus, or Tacitus (tăs′i-tus); or they may be sacred books which give history incidentally, as the Aves′ta of the Persians, or the Old Testament of the Jews; or they may be records of kings as found on tablets and monuments.

By far the greater part of our knowledge of the historic period is drawn from the written records; hence most of the matter in this book will be taken from these sources.

9. **Invention of Writing.** — Man never took a greater step in the direction of civilization and culture than when he invented the means of writing. In the childhood of the race the form of writing invented is what we call picture writing, in which the drawings represent things or ideas. Among the Indian tribes we find many specimens of picture writing.

A great advance was made when word writing was invented. By this method each word is represented by a character. But such writing is very difficult, as one is obliged to learn several thousand characters. The Chinese never advanced beyond this stage, and to this day the civilization of the Chinese is greatly retarded by their antiquated form of writing.

Word writing was followed by syllable writing, in which each symbol represents a syllable. This method reduced the number of characters to a few hundred and greatly simplified the art of writing.

Finally, the phonetic or sound method of writing came into use. In this each character represents one or more sounds, and the characters collectively are known as the alphabet.

10. Ancient, Medieval, and Modern History. — Historic times are often divided into three periods, Ancient, Medieval, and Modern. The ancient period merges into the medieval, and the medieval into the modern, by slow and imperceptible stages: it is therefore not surprising that writers vary in choosing definite dates as dividing points.

The ancient period comprises all historic times before the birth of Christ (about 5000 years) and about five or eight centuries after Christ.

The medieval period, called also the Middle Ages, comprises the following nine or ten centuries. Modern history covers the period from the end of the Middle Ages to the present time.[1]

It will be observed that the modern period is much shorter than either of the others, and that the medieval period is less than one fifth as long as the ancient period.

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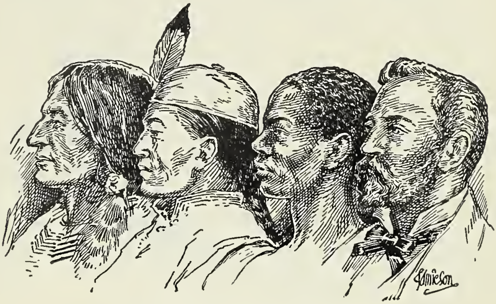
[1] Most of the older historians took the date 476 A.D., the fall of the Western Roman Empire, as ending the ancient period and beginning the Middle Ages, but other dates are often given; recent writers usually extend the ancient period to the time of Charlemagne, 800 A.D. The point dividing medieval from modern times is variously given as 1453, the fall of Constantinople; 1492, the discovery of America; 1517, the beginning of the Protestant Reformation; 1648, the treaty of Westphalia; or even 1789, the beginning of the French Revolution. It is of slight importance which of these one adopts. Perhaps in the remote future our own times will be considered medieval or even ancient.

II. Races and Languages

11. **Races of Men.** — The beginning of history finds the inhabitants of the earth divided into many types or races, distinguished from one another by language, color, physical features, and the like. These types of people are usually grouped into four great races, of which all minor divisions are but variations. They are (1) the Caucasian or white race, (2) the Ethio′pian, Negro, or black race, (3) the Mongolian or yellow race, and (4) the American or red race.



The Four Races of Man

Beginning at the right, the men in the picture are arranged in the same order as the races mentioned in the text, namely, Caucasian, Negro, Mongolian, and American Indian.

The Caucasian race[1] comprises most of the peoples of Europe and their descendants in America and elsewhere, also the peoples of northern Africa and of western Asia. In ancient times the peoples of India, Babylonia, Arabia, Palestine, Egypt, and of Greece, Italy, and the rest of Europe, belonged to this race. Their modern descendants comprise the great nations of Italy, France, Russia, Germany, and England, the white people of the

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[1] From Cau′casus, a region between the Caspian and Black seas in which the white race was formerly supposed to have had its origin.

United States, and many smaller nations. Not only are almost all the civilized nations of to-day of the white race, but throughout all the historic ages this race has taken the lead and has been foremost in the world's progress.

The Ethiopian[1] or Negro race inhabits central Africa and other warm lands, where many have adopted the civilization of white men.

The Mongolian[2] or yellow race includes the Chinese, Japanese, and other peoples of northern and eastern Asia and adjacent islands. A small part of this race is sometimes called the Malay or brown race. We find also a few yellow peoples in Europe, as the Turks and Hungarians. The yellow race boasts of a very ancient civilization; but after it reached a stage that we should pronounce half-civilized, two thousand or more years ago, its growth was checked and thereafter it made little progress until very recent times.

The American race, or Indians, were unknown to the rest of the world until 1492. When discovered by the Europeans, the great majority of the Indian tribes lived in the polished stone age and in the hunting and fishing stage.

12. Languages. — If a number of children were to associate with one another, none having been taught to speak, they would soon make a language of their own (sec. 6, note). If a number of people, each knowing a language unknown to the others, were thrown together, they would no doubt soon form a common speech composed of words taken from the languages they already knew. If then in later ages it were desired to discover from what nations this group of people had come, a great deal could be learned by studying their language.

In like manner we learn much of the origin and relationship of the nations with one another by studying their languages. Here is an example: The ancient Greeks believed that they had sprung from the soil of Greece; but the resemblance of their language to the old Sanskrit language of India and to other languages of western Asia and Europe, points strongly to the supposition that the Greeks and other peoples in prehistoric times migrated from some region where their ancestors had lived together. As there was no written record of this long journey, it was entirely forgotten by later generations.

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[1] Ethiopia is the old name of a region south of Egypt, the home of the Negroes first known to the civilized white men.

[2] From Mongolia, a large province of central Asia, whence came many invasions and migrations of yellow peoples.

The people of the world speak many languages, only a few of which need be mentioned here. The white or Caucasian race is usually divided into three great branches or linguistic families, as follows:

1. The Hamites (hăm′īts), which may be ranked as the smallest and least important of these great families. The only great ancient Hamit′ic nation was Egypt.

2. The Semites (sĕm′īts). The Babylonians, Arabians, Hebrews, and Phœnicians (fe-nĭsh′anz) were known as the Semit′ic peoples. Their languages greatly resemble one another and are called the Semit′ic languages.

3. The Indo-Europeans (also called Aryans). The Sanskrit of India is the oldest known Indo-European language. It is very much like the old language that was in a sense the parent of the Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin languages and other ancient Indo-European tongues, and through them of nearly all the modern languages of Europe. To the Indo-European group belong the Caucasian peoples of India and Persia, and nearly all the Caucasian peoples of modern Europe, America, Australia, etc. The Indo-European languages bear a close resemblance to one another; many words are the same in several of them.

13. **Scope of This Book.** — We are now ready to begin the story of the nations. Almost the entire book will be devoted to the doings of the Caucasian race. Again, at least nine tenths of the book must be given to an account of the Indo-European branch of that race, as the Indo-Europeans have dominated the world for the past 2500 years.

The Greeks and the Romans (or Latins) are known as the Classic peoples. They gained the world's leadership six or seven hundred years before Christ and held it for a thousand years. Then they declined and gave way before another great branch of the Indo-European family,—the Teuton'ic.[1] The Teutonic peoples became dominant about 1500 years ago and have ever since held the largest place in history,—although the Latin, Slavic, Japanese, and other nations also have made great contributions to the world's progress. Most of the latter half of this book therefore must be devoted to the peoples of the Teutonic race, including the English, Dutch, Germans, Scandinavians, and other peoples, and part of the French and Italians.

III. A VIEW OF PREHISTORIC EUROPE

14. Europe of Long Ago. — When Europe first became the home of men we do not know. We know that when history began to dawn upon that continent, it was aswarm with primitive peoples from the dark pine forests of Scandinavia to the shores of the Mediterranean; and geologists tell us that they had already occupied the land for unnumbered thousands of years. Human skeletons have been discovered so far beneath the earth's surface as to indicate a very remote age, an age when vast glaciers or masses of ice moved down from the north over a large part of Europe, carrying with them immense quantities of rock and soil which they left behind when they melted away.

Let us take a glance at prehistoric Europe, not the Europe of the glacial period but of a time some thousands of years later when the surface had become similar to what it is now and man had made some progress toward civilization. We find the people living in huts made by bending saplings together at the top and inclosing the spaces between them with bark and leaves. Or they may live in tents made of skins of animals and supported by poles. They have already learned the use of fire and they know how to make crude implements — hatchets, knives, hammers, and arrowheads — of stone. They have trained the wild jackal, which has become the faithful dog.

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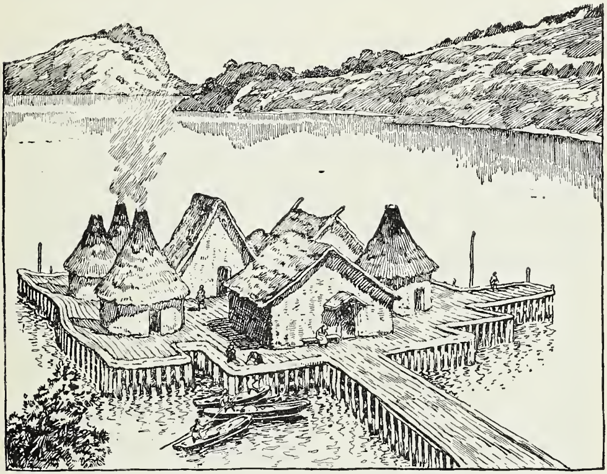
[1] The Teutonic or Nordic race comprised the peoples of Scandinavia, Germany, and other parts of northern Europe. They were characterized by tall stature, long head, blue eyes, and light hair and complexion. The purest Teutonic type of to-day is the Scandinavian.

The Europeans of this period have no knowledge of the far more remote times (ancient times to them) when their ancestors lived in caves; when the mammoth (picture in sec. 8) — a species of elephant covered with shaggy brown hair and armed with tusks ten feet long — stalked with ponderous tread through the forest, feeding upon the branches of the trees. These great pachyderms had become extinct. The thick-skinned rhinoceros that inhabited the jungles and the huge hippopotamus that wallowed in the rivers, both natives of Europe, had been driven to the tropical south by the glaciers.

But we see that many wild creatures still share the forest home with the prehistoric Europeans. Great herds of wild horses roam over the hills and plains, and the wolves howl at night around the lonely huts in the wilderness.

We see a man at his tent door skinning a deer that he has shot with his bow and arrow. He uses a knife, or a fist hatchet, made of hard stone. His wife sits on the ground near the tent weaving a basket of grass fiber. Both are clothed in skins sewed together with thongs of animal tendons by use of a bone needle. The children, perhaps not clothed at all, are playing about, or searching the forest for nuts or berries, or trying to capture small animals for food. The life of the family is one long struggle for food and for protection from the wild beasts.

15. The Lake Dwellers. — In some parts of the country, especially in what is now Switzerland, the people found an effective protection by building huts over the water. These people are known as the " lake dwellers." The hut was built on a platform supported by piles driven into the soft bottom of the lake. The piles were made of logs, the trunks of small trees, cut down with stone or bronze axes. Villages of these huts were built over many lakes and were connected with the shore by movable bridges. No doubt these lake huts furnished excellent protection to the inhabitants from their enemies, man and beast, and moreover fishing at home was made an easy and comfortable occupation. Fish were taken by means of nets, or with bone fish-hooks let down through a hole in the floor. Many tools and implements were dropped into the lake, often by accident, and thousands of them have been discovered in our own times. From these it is found that the early lake dwellers belonged to the polished stone age and to the hunting and fishing stage. The later lake dwellers had merged into the bronze age.



A Small Village of Lake Dwellers — Restoration

The causeway in the foreground, broken by movable bridges, connected the village with the land. This restoration represents a home of the later lake dwellers.

16. Europe at a Later Age. — Let us now take a nearer view of Europe, a few centuries before the beginning of the Christian era. We find that along the southern shores, in Greece and Italy, notable advances in civilization have been made, as described in later chapters of this book. Over all the rest of Europe barbarism still prevails. But the Europeans have made great progress since we saw them dwelling on the lakes or skinning deer at their tent doors.

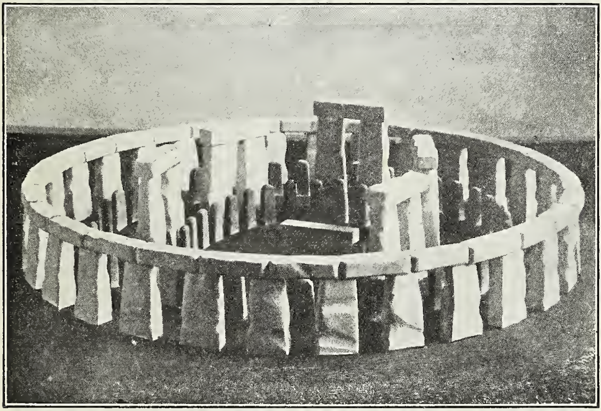
Since then they have been passing from the bronze to the iron age and from the hunting to the pastoral stage, and they have made a beginning in agriculture. They have tamed other animals besides the dog. The wild horse has become man's faithful servant. Herds and flocks of cattle, pigs, sheep, and goats dot the stretches of common pasture lands. To the food of the earlier times (meat, fish, nuts, and berries) are added milk, butter, and such cereals as wheat, barley, and rye. These barbarian Europeans have learned to make pottery of various kinds, and some of their tools are made of iron; but iron is not yet plentiful.

Long ago their ancestors had learned, perhaps by mere accident, that certain kinds of clay are hardened by burning, and thus the way was opened for making all sorts of vessels for use and ornament. One of the most important steps in the advance of any primitive people comes with the making of pottery.

When the Europeans learned to smelt iron we know not, but at the period we are studying they made many utensils and weapons of iron. They had also learned to tan hides and to weave cloth from various fibers. No longer were they dependent wholly on animal skins for clothing The women especially dressed for the most part with cloth, which they dyed red or purple. The tribal form of government prevailed and the tribes often fought with one another.

But with all this advance over the preceding centuries, the Europeans were still barbarians. They had no schools, no books, no writing of any kind. They worshiped objects in nature and imaginary spirits, and believed in a future life, but they had no churches and in many parts no regular priests or religious teachers.

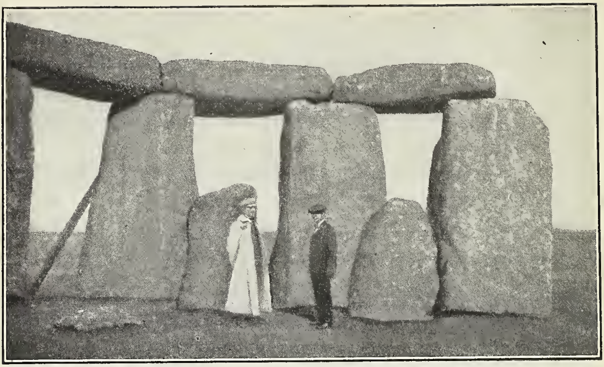
Now and then the Europeans of this period, especially those near the coast, met traders from eastern lands. With them they exchanged furs and other products of the forest for glass beads, ornamental pottery, and for utensils and weapons better than they were able to make at home. Who these traders were and from what strange lands they had come the Europeans did not know; but we can imagine that they were filled with wonder at their strange visitors. The fact is, the East, or Orient, was thousands of years in advance of Europe in civilization, and as the peoples of the Orient furnish the background of the civilization of Europe we must give them our attention in the next two chapters.



STONEHENGE — RESTORATION

SIDE TALK

Stonehenge. — One of the most interesting prehistoric relics in the world is found in a broad plain near Salisbury (sôlz′bẽr-ĭ), in southern England, and is called Stonehenge (stōn′hĕnj), which means hanging stones. It originally consisted of a large circle of huge upright stone posts about twelve feet high, inclosing a row of ten still larger posts, arranged in the form of a horseshoe opening to the east; together with many smaller stones. The outer stone posts were capped with large horizontal stones about ten feet



STONEHENGE — PART OF THE OUTER CIRCLE

The complete outer circle is about 100 feet across, and contained originally thirty upright stones, of which half were still in place in 1920. In that year the stones that had fallen were reërected; but some had been taken away in past ages for use in other structures.

long, firmly mortised into place; the posts in the horseshoe were likewise capped, in pairs. One of the upright stones of the horseshoe is twenty-two feet high and others are sixteen feet high. In the midst of the inclosure lies a great stone of blue marble fifteen feet in length, called the Altar Stone.

Stonehenge is a remarkable monument of a long past age. Many have been the speculations as to its construction and the purpose and the time in which it was built. It is very probable that it was a temple of worship. Some have attributed it to the Druids, others to the Danes, and still others to the Romans when they occupied Britain. The latest researches, however, indicate that Stonehenge was erected by an ancient British people about 2000 B.C. Over three hundred burial mounds have been found within three miles of the place and many contained bronze implements. It is therefore believed that Stonehenge dates from the bronze age.

Salisbury plain, during the World War, was the site of one of the great British training camps, where many American boys, as well as British and colonial troops, were stationed for a time.

Questions and Topics. — I. Define historic and prehistoric times. Name some peoples who have not reached the historic period. In what way is man superior to the animals? What is meant by the polished stone age and why is it so called? the iron age? Why was man a hunter before he was a shepherd? and why a shepherd before he was a farmer? How do you account for the two great changes that came during the agricultural stage?

What is human government? Why is it necessary? Describe the imaginary condition of a people without language; without fire.

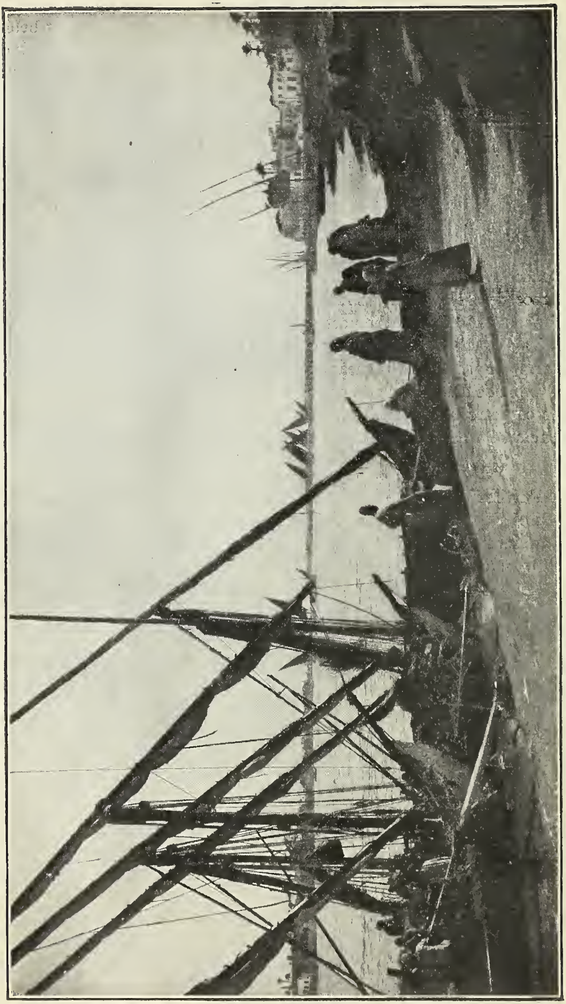
What is history? Name the records by which we learn something about prehistoric man. Describe picture writing. Why did it precede word writing? What is phonetic writing? How are ancient, medieval, and modern times usually divided?

II. On what basis do we divide the peoples of the world into races? What races are most progressive? Into what three great branches is the white race divided? Why is it so divided? What peoples have held the world's leadership during the past 2500 years?

III. What can you tell of the glaciers of prehistoric Europe? Describe the lake dwellers. What is meant by the bronze age? What foods were added to man's diet when he became a shepherd? a farmer? Why is the making of pottery an important step in human progress? Write a brief description of what our American civilization would be without the use of iron.

For Further Reading. — NOTE. The lists of books of reference given at the ends of the chapters are by no means complete. Those only are given which are most likely to be found in a good school library, or that are not difficult to procure. Usually the title of the book and the name of its author only will be given; the reader will find the topic required by means of the index or table of contents. Few books will be mentioned that are not printed in English, or are too advanced for young readers.

For the story of prehistoric man the following books are recommended: Clodd, *Story of Primitive Man*, also *Childhood of the World* by the same author. Taylor, *Origin of the Aryans*. Brinton, *Races and Peoples*. Elliot, *The Romance of Early British Life;* this book treats prehistoric Britain only, but is equally true of early times in other countries. It is written almost in story form and furnishes delightful reading.



The River Nile, near the Delta

THE ORIENTAL PEOPLES

CHAPTER II

ANCIENT EGYPT

I. The Land and the People

17. A Wonderful River. — There is no more famous and wonderful river of the world than the Nile. On this river have depended the life and subsistence of millions of people for thousands of years. The Greek historian Herodotus declared that Egypt was the gift of the Nile, and it is literally true.

Rising far to the southward in the heart of Africa, this great river waters and enriches a narrow valley, brings life and comfort to the people that dwell along its banks, and makes a garden of what would otherwise be a sterile and barren land. The lower Nile Valley, excepting the delta, is but eight or ten miles wide and is hemmed in on either side by lines of barren hills. Ancient Egypt comprised the delta and this narrow valley extending up (southward) to the "First Cataract," a distance of 600 miles. Swollen by the rains and the melting snows of the Abyssinian mountains, the Nile overflows the entire valley every summer, reaching its height in September. A few months later the waters have returned to the channel, leaving a sediment of alluvial soil which makes the valley one of the most fertile spots in the world. A song of the Egyptians to the Nile ran as follows:

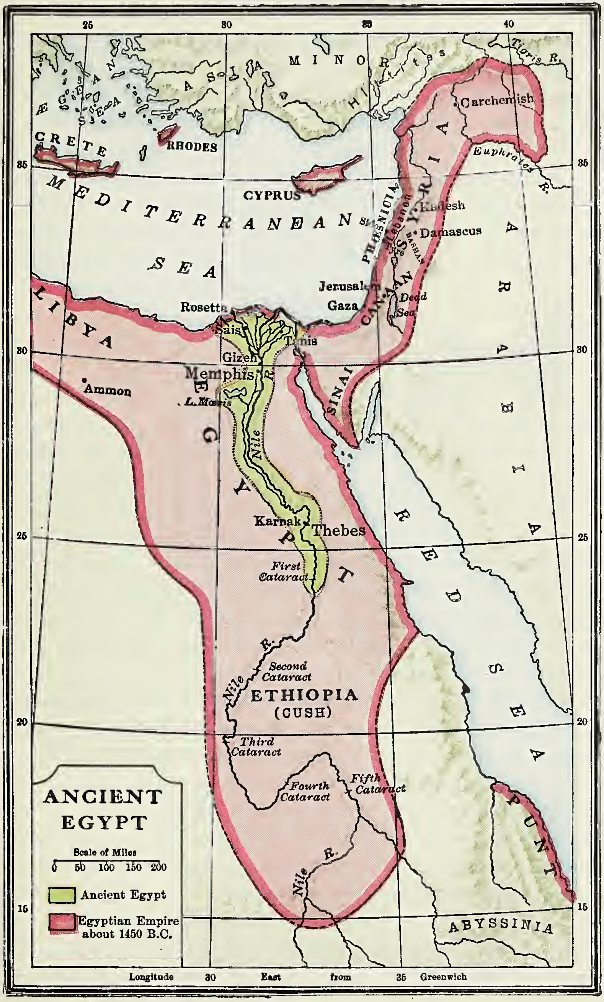
"Greeting to thee, O Nile, who hast revealed thyself throughout the land, who comest in peace to give life to Egypt. Does it rise? The land is filled with joy, every heart exults, every being receives its food, every mouth is full. . . . It creates all good things, it makes the grass to spring up for the beasts."

18. **Egyptian Homes of Long Ago.** — Nearly 5000 years before Christ the dawn of history began to break on the land of the Nile. The Egyptians were a Hamitic people. How many centuries they occupied the land before the record of their history begins, we do not know. Let us take a view of Egyptian life in the early historic period.

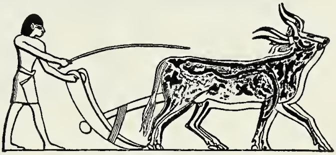
We see villages of mud huts built on low hills that rise like little islands above the flooded valley. These little hills are not natural, nor were they designedly made by the people. They came about in the following way:

Egypt is known as a rainless land; but now and then, perhaps two or three times in a century, the heavens open and the rain pours in torrential volume for many hours. The earthen huts are washed down and nothing is left but mounds of mud. The people are not in the least dismayed by the catastrophe. The whole population, men, women, and children, set to work to rebuild their houses. They make new huts of mud or of mud bricks brought from some field near at hand. In a few weeks they are quite as well housed as before the flood; but they do not excavate and lay a foundation as we do in building a house. They build on the remains of the old house, and the new one stands on a higher level. Thus the new village is slightly raised above the level of the old one, and in the course of centuries a hill is formed.

The furniture of the poor Egyptians of long ago is very scanty. A peep within reveals a few low stools, a wooden chest for linen, a few flat stones for grinding grain, and a rush mat or two lying on the ground floor. These mats are the beds; they have upturned edges provided with prickles to keep the scorpions from the sleepers at night. Against the wall stands a small image of a god, which the family worships and which is supposed to drive away evil spirits. In a corner is an earthen bin containing grain, oil, and other provisions. The fireplace is against the back wall and above it the smoke escapes through a hole in the roof.


ANCIENT EGYPT
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 150 200
🟩 Ancient Egypt
🟥 Egyptian Empire about 1450 B.C.
ÆGEAN SEA
ASIA MINOR
HITTITES
Tigris R.
Carchemish
CRETE
RHODES
CYPRUS
Euphrates R.
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
PHŒNICIA
SYRIA
Lebanon
Kadesh
Damascus
BASHAN
Tyre
Sidon
CANAAN
Jerusalem
Gaza
Dead Sea
ARABIA
LIBYA
Rosetta
Sais
Tanis
Gizeh
Memphis
Ammon
L. Mœris
EGYPT
SINAI
Nile R.
Karnak
Thebes
First Cataract
RED SEA
Second Cataract
ETHIOPIA (CUSH)
Third Cataract
Fourth Cataract
Fifth Cataract
Nile R.
PUNT
ABYSSINIA
25
30
35
40
35
30
25
20
15
Longitude 30 East from 35 Greenwich

19. Life of the People. — Let us watch the ancient Egyptian peasant at his work. In early morning, at sunrise, barefooted and bareheaded, he leaves his mud hut and hurries to his field of toil. His only clothing is a pair of cotton trousers which scarcely fall below the thigh. He takes with him his midday meal — two small cakes baked in the ashes, perhaps a little oil in which to dip them, a morsel of dried fish, and one or two onions. His wife spends the day grinding grain between two stones, or in spinning and weaving by hand, and baking bread, with perhaps an hour or two in the market place.



Ancient Egyptian Plowing

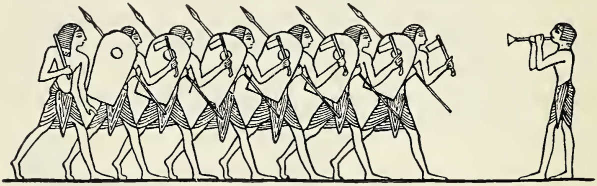
The plow is of wood, drawn by two cows. Notice how the two are shown, — a convention of Egyptian art.

The man who thus goes forth to toil is not free to choose his own hours or to work in his own way. Whether he works in the field as a tiller of the soil, or in the brickyard, or in the artisan's shop making pottery or ornaments, or whether he herds cattle on the plains, he toils under the lash of a taskmaster. He is sometimes beaten whether he deserves to be or not. An Egyptian proverb runs, "Man has a back and obeys only when it is beaten." Even the magistrate who orders the beating does not escape a similar punishment by his superiors. A great part of the earnings of the laborer must go for taxes. A large part of the flax and grain the peasant farmer raises is seized by the government agents, and one who fails to pay is treated with the utmost cruelty. But with all their hardships the Egyptians were a gay and light-hearted people. The common people had an opportunity to give the rudiments of an education to their children, and it was possible for the son of a peasant to advance to the upper classes through education and ability.

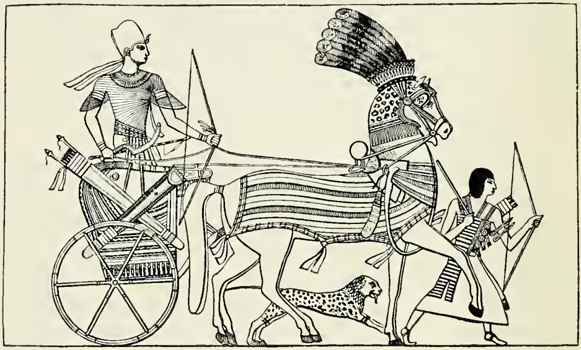
educat

The greatest hardship that the Egyptian peasant had to bear was found in the forced service of the young men in the army.

As a people the Egyptians were patient and long-suffering; they often preferred to bow their necks to the yoke of a foreign master rather than fight for their liberty. But their kings did not view the matter in that light. If we watch a village when the king's recruiting agents are coming, we see that many of the men flee to the hills and remain away till the danger is past. The mayor of the village prevents this flight so far as he is able, for he knows that he will suffer by the bastinado if found negligent. The men seized for the army are seldom restored to their families;



Egyptian Soldiers



Egyptian War Chariot

These ancient Egyptian pictures show clearly the weapons used. On the right side of the chariot are a bow case and a quiver. Notice that there are two horses, one on each side of the chariot pole; compare with the picture on page 25.

many lives are sacrificed on the plains of Syria or Ethiopia. When they are led away their wives and mothers weep and wail and mourn them as dead. The soldier goes into battle with a wooden shield held in his left hand, while in his right hand he wields an ax or a javelin (jăv′lin; that is, a light spear to be thrown). After the middle period of Egyptian history, when the horse and chariot were introduced, these were often used in battle. The chariot, made of wood and leather, bore but one or two warriors.

20. Commerce and the Market Place. — The Nile was the great artery of Egyptian trade. Up and down the mighty river the people rowed or sailed their little boats, carrying their products from one section to another.[1] In foreign trade they were less active, but their imports from abroad were considerable. Cedars of Leb′anon they obtained from the coast of Phœnicia (fe-nĭsh′i-a) as early as 3000 B.C.; ostrich feathers, ivory, ebony, and spices came from the heart of Africa by means of caravans of donkeys; embroideries from Bab′ylon, silver and gold from Ethiopia, and many other things from various parts of the world, were imported in exchange for the products of Egypt.

Let us take a stroll through an Egyptian market place of about 1400 B.C.[2] It is in the city of Thebes (thēbz). As we pass from the squalid suburbs to the central part of the city we find that the houses indicate wealth and comfort. The streets are so narrow that the sky seems but a blue line between the tops of the buildings. Here and there the houses project so far over the street from both sides that we walk through a sort of tunnel.

Suddenly we come to a small open square, a very noisy place. It is full of people who are talking loudly and who seem to be very busy. Crowds are going away, but other crowds are coming in, and the square is full all day long.

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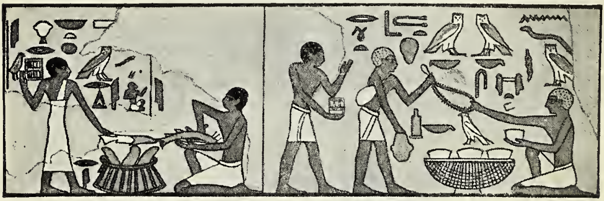
[1] In the photograph reproduced on page 22 the boats indicate the importance of the Nile as a waterway in modern times. The sails are rigged in much the same way as those of the ancient Egyptian boats three or four thousand years ago.

[2] This is adapted from *Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria*, ch. 11, by Maspero, one of the most learned of the French Egyptologists, who spent many years in Egypt studying the inscriptions.

All sorts of commodities are on sale. In the center of the square are groups of goats, sheep, oxen, geese. In front of the rows of houses that inclose the square, we see hundreds of fishermen and peasants squatting on the ground, each displaying, in a wicker basket or on a low table, something to sell. The customers walk along leisurely. Each carries something to barter for something else, and very little money changes hands. A seller asks much more for an article than he expects to get. You hear an altercation that sounds like an angry quarrel. It is merely two persons trying to make a bargain, and the same thing is going on all over the square. A woman with fish and onions in her basket trades with a man for copper rings or a pair of sandals or a necklace of glass beads. One is trading for beautiful gold or stone vases. The bargains are often complicated. One inscription shows that a man traded an ox for a mat, five measures of honey, eleven measures of oil, and seven other articles.



Egyptian Market Scenes

From an Egyptian tomb. Selling and cleaning fish; bartering a necklace for pots of perfume. In the upper and central parts of each scene are examples of Egyptian writing in hieroglyphics.

II. Government and Religion

21. Egyptian History; the Rosetta Stone. — Our chief sources of Egyptian history are the work of Herodotus, who visited the country about 460 B.C. and wrote an account of what he saw and heard; also, manuscripts discovered in the past century, and many inscriptions on tombs and monuments.

The greatest event in the modern study of ancient Egypt was the deciphering of the Rosetta (ro-zĕt′a) stone. This large stone was found at Rosetta in the Nile delta in 1799; it is now in the British Museum. On it a decree was written in three kinds of characters, one of which was Greek, while the others were late Egyptian and early Egyptian, which no living person could read. On the supposition that the Greek and Egyptian inscriptions meant the same thing, the French scholar Champollion (shäɴ-pŏl-yôɴ′),[1] who easily read the Greek, set to work to decipher the Egyptian. After long and patient study he learned how to read the early Egyptian writing in hieroglyphics (hī-ẽr-o-glĭf′iks; sec. 26), and since then great numbers of the ancient Egyptian inscriptions and manuscripts have been read.

Our knowledge of Egyptian history is subject to change with later discoveries. It is known, however, that for a very long period Egypt was a kingdom and later on an empire. A kingdom is a monarchy, the people of which usually comprise but one nationality; an empire is usually a monarchy having subject peoples of different nationalities. In Egypt the ruler was called Pharaoh (fā′rō), which means king or emperor.

One of the great pharaohs of the early period was Khufu, called Cheops (kē′ŏps) by the Greeks. He was the builder of the largest pyramid (sec. 24). Centuries later a strange people called the Hyk′sos came from Asia and conquered the Egyptians. It is supposed by some that it was by one of their kings that Joseph was made prime minister and that Jacob and his family were invited to make their home in Egypt. The Hyksos kings introduced the use of the horse and the war chariot. After a century or more of rule the Hyksos were expelled.

In the period 1500 to 1300 B.C. the pharaohs extended their power over Ethiopia, Syria, and even as far as the valley of the Euphrates River. Thus Egypt expanded from a kingdom into a great empire. After a long war with the powerful Hittites (hĭt′īts) of Asia Minor, the pharaoh Ramses (răm′sēz) II made a treaty with them, which has been discovered. It is the oldest known treaty in the world.

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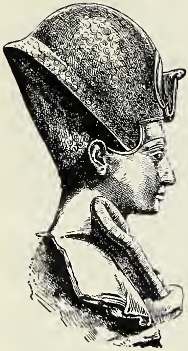
[1] For key to diacritical marks, see first page of index.

From about the thirteenth century B.C. Egyptian civilization slowly declined. Again and again the land was conquered and the people had to bow to Assyrian, Persian, and Greek kings ; and later to Roman and Moslem rulers. From about 340 B.C. to the present day the people of the valley of the Nile have never known an hour of complete independence. In 1922, however, Egypt became self-governing, and almost independent (sec. 610).


PHARAOH — RAMSES II

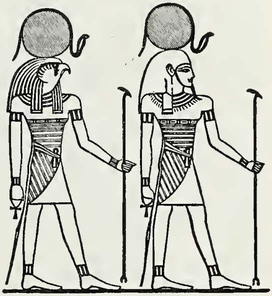
Black granite head now at Turin. The shepherd's crook and the asp or cobra on the headdress are emblems of authority.

22. Pharaoh and the Government. — The pharaoh or king of ancient Egypt stood alone as the head of the government and of society. He was absolute monarch, and the people regarded him as akin to the gods. Only on state occasions did he appear in the presence of his people. Over all classes he had the power of life and death, and all the wealth of the nation belonged to him. The provinces into which the country was divided were governed by agents who were responsible to the king.

Next to the pharaoh stood the two privileged classes, the priesthood and the military class. Below these were the great masses of the people — herdsmen, artisans, and farmers. All the land of Egypt was the property of the pharaoh and by him it was parceled out to great landlords who employed taskmasters to force the peasants to toil and pay heavy taxes. The crafty priests made the peasants believe that large tracts of the land belonged to the gods and in this way secured a more willing service by making the daily toil a service of religion.

23. Religion. — " The Egyptians are the most religious of all people," said Herodotus. The civilization of Egypt was built almost wholly on religion. The art and architecture of the whole country were little else than varied forms of religious expression. The different districts worshiped their own local gods, but there were also many gods worshiped throughout the country.

The chief deity of the Egyptians was the sun-god Ra. It is asy to understand why a primitive people would worship the un, as it is not only the most glorious object ever beheld by human eyes, but is also the giver of heat and light and life itself. A Theban hymn to the rising sun ran thus: " Homage to thee, thou master of the two horizons.... Thou treadest the heavens on high. Thine enemies are laid low. The heavens are glad, the earth is joyful."

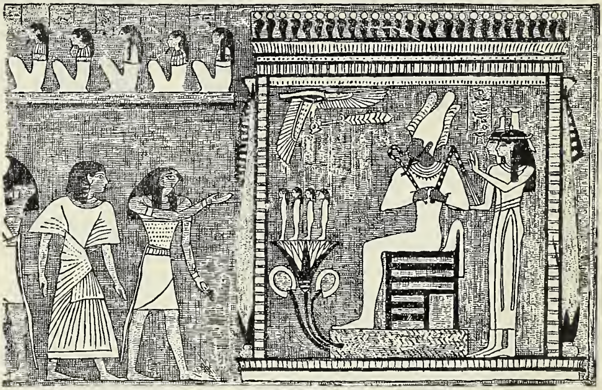


Two Pictures of Ra

Each is surmounted by the disk of the sun, encircled with the asp, symbolizing the power of life and death.

The Egyptians fancied spirits, good and evil, dwelling in rocks and trees, men and animals. The ibis, the cat, the hawk, the crocodile, and other animals were held sacred in various places. The black bull Apis (ā′pĭs) was venerated as the incarnation of Ptah, the local god of Memphis, and after its death was embalmed and kept in a vault, while a newborn calf was chosen to be the new Apis.

No ancient people believed more firmly in a future life than did the Egyptians. In their belief that the soul might wish to reënter the body, they embalmed the bodies of the dead to preserve them from decay. Great numbers of these embalmed bodies, called mummies, are still in existence and may be seen in various museums. An Egyptian would live almost in poverty, denying himself the necessaries of life, in order to build an enduring stone sepulcher for a tomb. In the tomb, with the coffin, were placed furniture, food, and many other things for the use of the soul or " double "; also the Book of the Dead, written on a roll of paper to explain what the soul should say when it came into the presence of Osi'ris, the god of the underworld. To be admitted to t abode of happiness the soul had to declare that it had never frauded nor committed murder, had never blasphemed the go nor profaned their temples, had never been an idler nor oppress the widow. Thus in spite of its primitive forms of worship, th Egyptian religion enjoined a high moral standard.



A Soul Brought to Osiris for Judgment

From a painting in a Book of the Dead. The god Osiris holds the crook and the whip, emblems of authority. Behind him stand two goddesses, wife and sister of Osiris.

III. Civilization and Progress

24. Architecture and Art. — Every important building in early Egypt was a temple or a tomb.[1] A temple was considered the dwelling place of a god. It was usually surrounded by a

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[1] While the temples were supposed to be dwelling places of the gods, the great structures such as that at Kar'nak, served also as residences of the priests. Here in addition to the ordinary forms of worship, were held ceremonials in which the king sacrificed to the gods for the people, or was himself worshiped by the people as representative of the gods on earth. The sculptured columns shown in the picture on the opposite page were covered with hieroglyphics and paintings in brilliant color.

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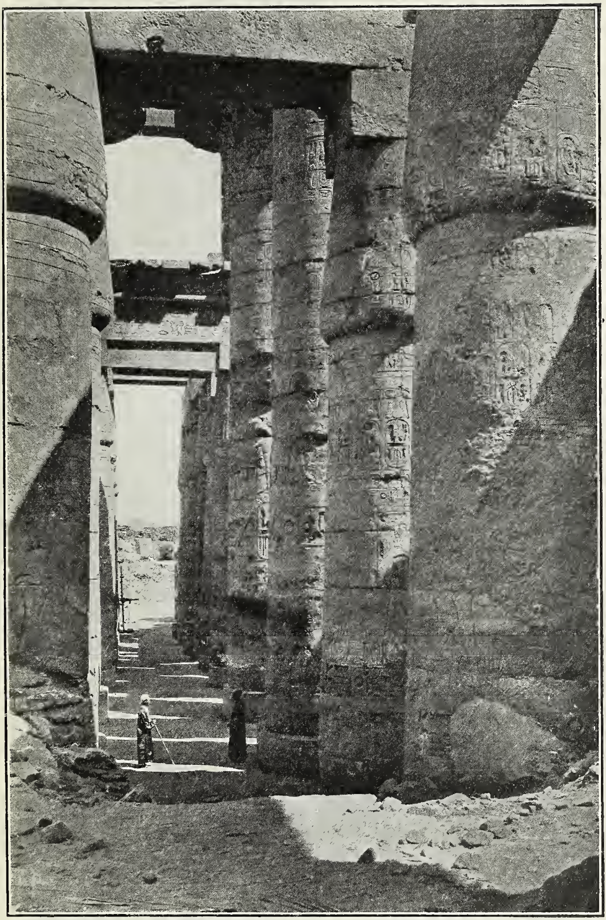

Aisle of the Great Hall of Karnak

The Sphinx and the Great Pyramid of Cheops court and beautiful gardens. The entrance was a magnificent gateway, on either side of which stood a colossal obelisk of solid rock, or a great stone giant in a sitting posture.

The pyramids are the most stupendous structures ever erected by human hands. They are tombs of the pharaohs, in a great royal cemetery at Gizeh (gē'zĕ), a few miles from the city of Memphis. In other tombs of masonry, clustered about the pyramids, were buried many relatives of the pharaohs.

The great pyramids are built of huge blocks of limestone. The largest was originally 480 feet in height. It covers 13 acres and is composed of 2,300,000 blocks of stone averaging in weight about two and a half tons each. Its construction required the labor of 100,000 men for twenty years. It was built by Cheops (Khufu) nearly five thousand years ago.

In earlier times the Egyptians had usually built their tombs and monuments of sun-dried bricks; but by the time of the age of the pyramids they had learned to make implements of copper with which they could cut stone. From this time forth their buildings and monuments were of an enduring nature, and many of them remain to this day.[1]

In the early period the capital of Egypt was Memphis, but during the empire most of the pharaohs lived at Thebes. In time, therefore, Thebes grew into one of the most wonderful of ancient cities. Here were erected vast structures — towering obelisks, colossal statues, great palaces, and above all the Temple of Ammon, one of the most magnificent temples of the ancient world. This great structure, called also the Hall of Karnak, from the suburb of Thebes in which it was located, contains the grandest colonnaded hall in the world. There is a central aisle of twelve columns eighty feet high, with lines of smaller columns on either side. The general plan of this and other temples of Egypt was copied in part by the Greeks and Romans and later by the builders of the Christian cathedrals.

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[1] The Sphinx is the stone figure of a recumbent lion with the head of a king wearing a royal head cloth. When it was excavated in the nineteenth century, between the outstretched paws rose a kind of open temple, which is now re-covered with sand. Probably the original rock bore a natural resemblance to a lion, but this resemblance was improved with the help of blocks of stone, and the face was carved by the Egyptians.

In sculpture the Egyptians never greatly excelled. The oldest specimens of the sculptor's art that have been preserved are truer to life and nature than those of later times. Sculpture came to follow conventional rules, fixed by religion. The figures of the men were all made alike, stiff and unattractive, with feet together and legs parallel. The chief function of sculpture was to decorate the walls of tombs and temples with carved figures.

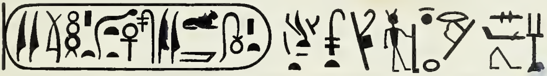
The Egyptians became very skillful in various handicrafts. They cut fine bowls from hard stone, and molded beautiful jars and vases from clay and glass; they made jewelry of gold and silver and precious stones. They invented many useful implements.

25. **The Sciences.** — One scientific achievement of the ancient Egyptians is shown by their skill in preserving dead bodies. The yearly inundations of the Nile led them to construct reservoirs and canals by which they irrigated the land during the dry season. The Nile inundations often destroyed their landmarks; and thus they were forced to a study of surveying, in which they became very proficient.

The Egyptians studied the heavens and attained a knowledge of astronomy, and one of their greatest achievements was their fixing the length of the year at 365 days. The Egyptian calendar was devised in 4241 B.C. By it the year was divided into twelve months of thirty days each, leaving five holidays at the end of the year. It was this calendar with slight changes that Julius Cæsar adopted for the Roman people many centuries later. Cæsar added the five holidays to various months, thus making them uneven in length, and provided that one year in four should have 366 days. Many centuries later Pope Gregory XIII again corrected the calendar (1582 A.D.), and in the form in which he left it, it is in use now in nearly all civilized lands.

26. **How the Egyptians Learned to Write.** — The people of Egypt, without a teacher, learned to write; and the art of writing

was the greatest gift they ever made to the world. The first rudiments of writing were perhaps nothing more than keeping accounts by making marks on the walls of the mud huts. The next step was to trace an outline figure of an object to express an idea. The idea of a house, for example, would be shown by an outline drawing of one of their little mud huts. The sun, the moon, a man, and many other objects were drawn to express ideas. This is known as picture writing. The American Indians had reached this stage of writing when Columbus made his famous voyage. They were about 6000 years behind the Egyptians.



Egyptian Hieroglyphic Writing

From the Rosetta stone. The writing is from right to left. The few words here shown mean "Raising a statue of the king of Egypt, Ptolemy eternal beloved of Ptah."

But picture writing is very unsatisfactory. Who can draw a picture of all his thoughts? Besides, there are many ideas that cannot well be expressed in pictures, such as goodness, shape, size, and the like. For such words the Egyptians needed a better form of writing, and it came, in the course of hundreds of years, by the steps described in section 9. The Egyptians devised an alphabet of twenty-four letters, and could write any word in their language. The achievement was of vast importance to the future of the world. No nation unable to write can make any claim to culture and civilization.

Though the Egyptians invented an alphabet they did not make full use of it. For many centuries they used it only in supplementing the older methods of writing. The ancient Egyptian system of writing, called hieroglyphic, was thus a combination of characters representing objects, words, and syllables or alphabetic sounds.

The Egyptians made many inscriptions on monuments, temples, and tombs. They used also a paper called papyrus (pa-pī′rus), which they made from the pith of a reed that grew along the Nile. They cut this pith into thin strips, laid them side by side, and, placing another layer across, pasted them together and subjected them to a heavy pressure. Thus a fairly good paper was made. Our word paper comes from the word papyrus.

The Egyptians made ink by mixing soot and vegetable gum with water. With this they wrote on the papyrus by means of a pointed reed. A book was a roll of written papyrus, and a reader had to hold it with both hands, unrolling it with one hand at one end while rolling it up with the other hand at the other end as he read. A papyrus book was kept packed in a jar. A library consisted of a number of shelves of papyrus jars, each labeled to show the subject treated.

27. Influence of Egypt on Later Civilization. — The people of the Nile Valley are especially interesting to us because they developed the first civilization in the world's history. The Babylonians, whose civilization is almost as old, will be treated in the next chapter.

" You Greeks are but children," said an Egyptian to Herodotus, about four and a half centuries B.C. At that time it was but a few hundred years since Greece had emerged from barbarism, while Egyptian civilization had passed its zenith a thousand years.

We of to-day are indebted to the ancient Egyptians for much that we enjoy. We owe them for the calendar, for the foundation of the sciences of astronomy and geometry, and for some of the best features of our modern architecture. Above all, we owe them for the invention of the alphabet, their greatest achievement.

SIDE TALK

Tutankhamen and Egyptian Discoveries. — After Champollion had deciphered the Rosetta stone (Sec. 21), great interest was awakened in ancient Egyptian history. Many discoveries were made by German, French, English, and American expeditions. But the most important discovery in the history of Egyptian excavations was that of the tomb of Tutankhamen (toot-ahnk-ah′-men), a pharaoh who lived nearly 1400 years B.C.

Near the site of the ancient Thebes, the important discovery was made in November, 1922, by an English excavator named Howard Carter, assisted by Lord Carnarvon, who for many years furnished the necessary money to carry on the operations. The treasures in this tomb were astonishing in their splendor, being well preserved in the dry Egyptian climate. The treasure chamber is reached by a passage through solid rock.

Among the treasures discovered in the tomb of Tutankhamen are the throne, gem-studded chariots, alabaster vases, boxes of mummified meats as food for the king in his passage to the next world; also an enormous amount of furniture, jewels of gold, precious stones innumerable, and ornaments of many varieties. It has been estimated that the treasures of the tomb of Tutankhamen, according to present-day valuation, would be worth more than ten million dollars. According to the laws of Egypt half of these treasures will remain in that country. The other half will probably find their way into the various museums of other countries.

Questions and Topics. — I. Write a short essay on the Nile River. How came the little hills on which the mud houses were built? From what you know of the home life of the Americans of 300 years ago, how would it compare with that of the Egyptians? How were taxes collected in Egypt? What advantage has a self-governing people in the matter of taxation? How did the Egyptians regard war? Under what circumstances is war justifiable? Describe an Egyptian market place.

II. From what sources do we get our knowledge of early Egypt? What is the Rosetta stone? Where is the British Museum? What is the difference between a kingdom and an empire? What empires exist at present? Who was Ramses II? Name some features of the ancient Egyptian religion. Why did the Egyptians preserve dead bodies?

III. Describe the various steps of the Egyptians in making an alphabet. How does learning to write rank in the progress of a nation? What is papyrus? What simple invention enabled the Egyptians to build structures of enduring stone? Why are the pyramids interesting to us? What conditions forced the Egyptians to learn surveying? For what is the modern world indebted to ancient Egypt?

For Further Reading. — Maspero, *Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria;* also by same author, *Manual of Egyptian Archeology.* Breasted, *History of the Ancient Egyptians.* Botsford, *Source Book of Ancient History.* Morey, *Ancient Peoples.*

CHAPTER III

THE TIGRIS-EUPHRATES VALLEY; PALESTINE

I. The Inhabitants of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley

28. **The Land of the Twin Rivers.** — Far up among the snowy heights of the Arme'nian mountains rise two of the most notable rivers in the world — the Ti'gris and the Euphra'tes. In their upper courses they flow near together, then far apart, and again together, inclosing the great plains of Mesopotamia (mĕs-o-po-tā'mi-a).[1] The course of the Tigris is the more direct. The Euphrates makes a great detour toward the desert of Arabia; but in their lower course the two rivers unite and flow as one into the Persian Gulf.

The land along this lower course, together with the southern part of Mesopotamia, was known to the ancients as Chaldea (kăl-dē'a) or Babylonia. It was a land of burning sun, of extraordinary fertility of soil, and of extensive forests of palm trees. It was the seat of one of the earliest civilizations in history. Some scholars, indeed, believe that the historic period of this great valley can be traced fully as far back as the historic period of Egypt.

As the valley of the Nile, because of its great fertility, developed an early civilization, so it was with the great valley of the twin rivers. The vast fertile plain between the snowy mountains of Armenia and the uninhabitable deserts of Arabia became the prize for which contending peoples fought. Wandering tribes would roll in from the desert or the mountains, and if successful in subduing the inhabitants, would settle down and become tillers of the soil. These again would be driven out by other tribes, and so the process continued for thousands of years.

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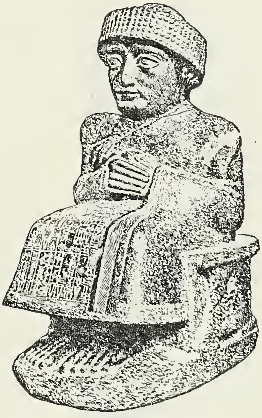
[1] From two Greek words meaning "between the rivers."

Many a nomadic tribe, with its meager possessions of flocks and herds and rude implements of war, passed in this way from the pastoral to the agricultural stage and merged into a state of civilization. The peoples of this great valley were similar in their civilization to their contemporaries of the valley of the Nile, and much that has been said of the Egyptians need not be repeated here.

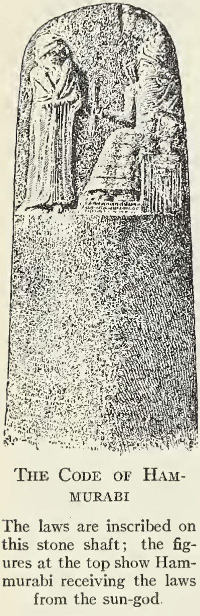
29. The Sumerians and the Babylonians. — The first known inhabitants of the lower Tigris-Euphrates Valley were the Sume'rians, a "round-headed, smooth-shaven" people of unknown origin. They built strong houses, tilled the soil, and threw up dikes to regulate the overflow of the Euphrates. They also, like the Egyptians, invented a system of writing. About 2750 B.C. these people were conquered by a Semitic tribe of nomads. The two peoples soon became friendly and lived together in harmony. Each city had an independent government with its separate king. They are known as city-states. In the early time the country was called Akkad, but later the town of Babylon came to be the most important city and gave its name to the whole country — Babylonia. The towns and cities were built on low hills that grew up in the same way as those of the valley of the Nile (sec. 18). Some of these are being excavated and the records and tablets are being deciphered through the patient labors of scholars who devote their lives to this work.



VOTIVE STATUE OF A BABYLONIAN KING, ABOUT 2450 B.C.

Found in southern Babylonia; now in the Louvre (lo͞o'vr'), Paris. The statue is of diorite, a hard stone imported from a distance. This illustrates the fact that Babylonia had an extensive commerce.

30. Hammurabi the Lawgiver. — About 2100 B.C. the valley was conquered by Hammurabi (hâm-ōō-rä'bē). He made Babylon his capital and extended his kingdom into a great empire reaching to the Mediterranean. He was one of the wisest and greatest rulers of the ancient world. He is remembered in history for the code of laws that he gave to his people. The laws were engraved on a stone shaft eight feet high, at the top of which was the figure of the king receiving the laws from the sun-god. This, the most precious relic that has come down to us from ancient Babylon, was unearthed by a Frenchman in 1901.



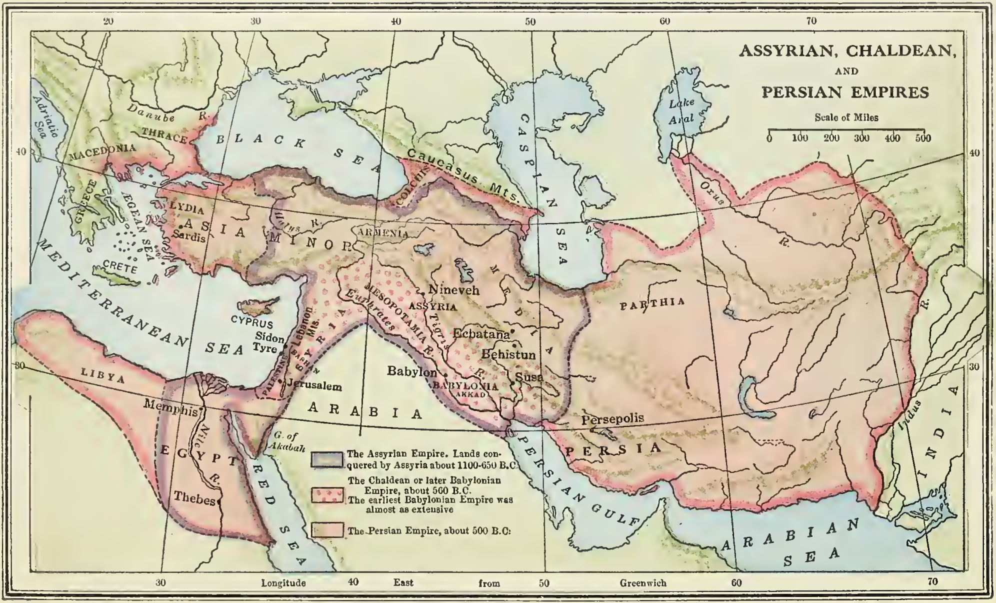
THE CODE OF HAMMURABI

The laws are inscribed on this stone shaft; the figures at the top show Hammurabi receiving the laws from the sun-god.

We learn much about these people of long ago through this remarkable code. It reveals that the Babylonians recognized private ownership of land, that they had a regular postal system, and that woman held a free and dignified position. The code shows that commerce was very extensive and that merchants gave credit and issued drafts. When a father received a price for his daughter in marriage, he usually handed it to her at the wedding and thus the young couple had both the bride-price and the bride's dowry with which to set up their home. There were cruel provisions in this code, but on the whole it was quite sane and even modern in spirit.

The Code of Hammurabi was in force for fifteen centuries or more. It was adopted in part by the Persian conquerors of Babylon, and later by the Greeks and others. This famous code ends thus:

"Let any oppressed man who has a cause come before my image as king of righteousness . . . may he set his heart at ease and he will exclaim, 'Hammurabi is indeed a ruler who is like a real father to his people.'"


ASSYRIAN, CHALDEAN, AND PERSIAN EMPIRES

Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
20
30
40
50
60
70
Longitude East from Greenwich
Adriatic Sea
Danube R.
THRACE
MACEDONIA
GREECE
ÆGEAN SEA
CRETE
LYDIA
Sardis
ASIA MINOR
Halys R.
BLACK SEA
Caucasus Mts.
COLCHIS
CASPIAN SEA
Lake Aral
Oxus R.
ARMENIA
MEDIA
Nineveh
ASSYRIA
Tigris
MESOPOTAMIA
Euphrates R.
Ecbatana
Behistun
Susa
Babylon
BABYLONIA
AKKAD
PARTHIA
Persepolis
PERSIA
PERSIAN GULF
ARABIAN SEA
Indus R.
INDIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CYPRUS
Sidon
Tyre
Lebanon Mts.
SYRIA
BASHAN
PALESTINE
Jerusalem
ARABIA
G. of Akabah
RED SEA
LIBYA
Memphis
EGYPT
Nile R.
Thebes
The Assyrian Empire. Lands conquered by Assyria about 1100-650 B.C.
The Chaldean or later Babylonian Empire, about 560 B.C. The earliest Babylonian Empire was almost as extensive
The Persian Empire, about 500 B.C.

31. The Rise of Assyria. — North and northwest from Babylonia is the broad valley of the upper Tigris River, and this, extending on to the mountains of Armenia, comprises Assyria. It is a land broken by hills and mountain spurs and traversed by rapid streams. The soil is far less fertile than that of Babylonia, and in winter the storms blow fiercely over the hills.

The people of Assyria were Semites, of the same race as the Babylonians, but were far more savage and warlike than their kinsmen of the lower valley. They made Nin′eveh their capital and it became the heart and center of all Assyrian life. The warlike Assyrians became world conquerors. They conquered Babylon and all the peoples of the Mesopotamian valley; also Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. One great Assyrian army on an expedition to Jerusalem was destroyed by a pestilence.[1] The records of history tell of no more cruel and bloodthirsty people than the Assyrians. For hundreds of years they were the scourge of the nations. To prevent uprisings among a conquered people the Assyrians devised the plan of carrying them away from their homes and scattering them among foreign peoples. This explains the several captivities of the Jews, as related in the Old Testament.

32. Fall of Nineveh (606 B.C.).—A day of reckoning came to the great wicked city of Nineveh. The Assyrians had exhausted themselves in war. Their enemies rose on every side. At last the Babylonians, joined by the Medes (mēdz), laid siege to the Assyrian capital, " the city gorged with prey," and after a desperate resistance it was overpowered and leveled to the ground. " Nineveh is laid waste; who will bemoan her? " said the Jewish prophet. So complete was the destruction of Nineveh that the very site of the city was lost and it remained unknown for more than two thousand years.

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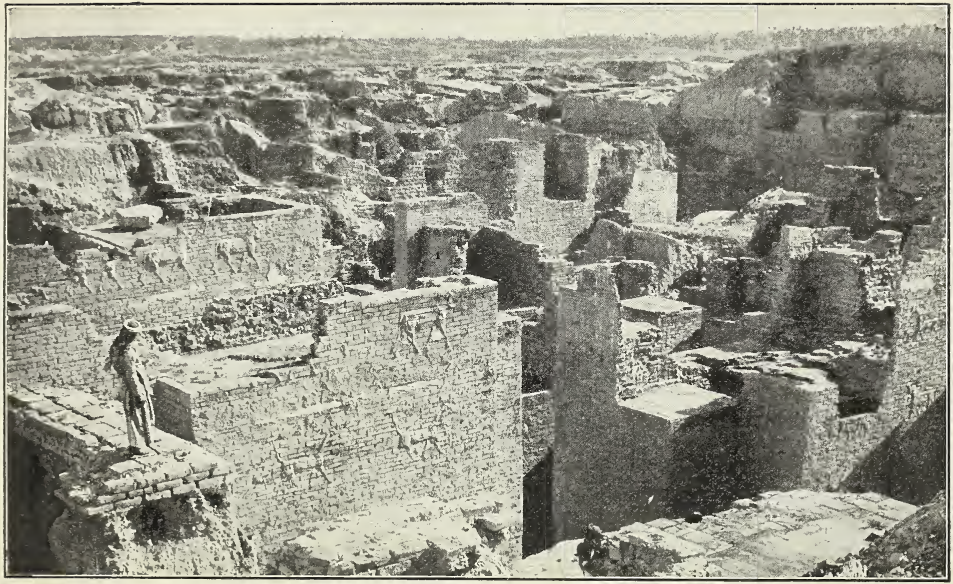
[1] The Old Testament account of this is found in II Kings 19, 35–36. See also Byron's poem,

> The Assyrian came down like the wolf on the fold,
> And his cohorts were gleaming in purple and gold.
> The sheen of his spears was like stars on the sea,
> When the blue wave rolls nightly on deep Galilee.



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Ruins of Babylon, Uncovered by Europeans in 1900–1912

With the fall of Nineveh the bloody career of the Assyrian Empire was ended. The lands lying east of the Tigris River were taken by the Medes, and those lying westward fell to the Babylonians. The Medes were an Aryan or Indo-European people, the first of their group to make a name in history.

33. **The Chaldeans; the City of Babylon.** — One of the great human waves that rolled from Arabia into the lower valley of the Euphrates was composed of the Chaldeans. They merged with the Babylonians and the two peoples established a great empire under Nebuchadrezzar (nĕb-u-kad-rĕz′ar), a monarch more renowned even than Hammurabi the lawgiver. We know him best as the rebuilder of Babylon and the despoiler of the Hebrews. He captured Jerusalem in 586 B.C. and carried to Babylon great numbers of the people. "By the rivers of Babylon, there we sat down," wailed the psalmist, "yea, we wept when we remembered Zion."[1]

Of all the cities of antiquity the greatest was Babylon. Even Rome was inferior in size and magnificence. The origin of this wonderful city of the Euphrates is lost in the twilight of legend and fable. Destroyed and rebuilt at various times, it reached the height of its glory under Nebuchadrezzar.[2]

The circumference of the city was forty miles, but the entire area was not covered with buildings. There were fields, orchards, and gardens within the city limits. The whole was inclosed by a great brick wall, nearly a hundred feet in height and pierced by nearly a hundred gates. Outside the wall was a deep moat filled with water. On the summit were 250 towers, arranged in pairs, one on the inside and another opposite it on the outside, and so thick was the wall that on the top of it two chariots could pass each other between the towers.

Within the city were many magnificent buildings, including the great palace of the king, the temple of the god Bel, and the hanging gardens. The king's palace, including its outer walls, was three miles in circumference. The hanging gardens were built, it is said, by the great king to please his Median wife, who in her native home had been accustomed to mountain scenery. It was a square building of receding terraces supported by arches and columns. The terraces were covered with earth on which grew flowers, shrubs, and trees.

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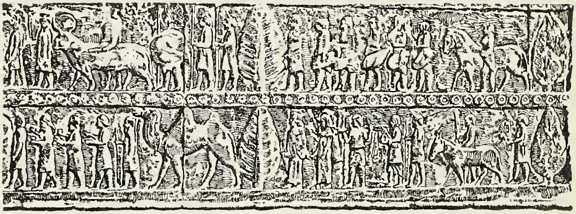
[1] See II Kings, chs. 24 and 25; also the 137th Psalm.

[2] Babylon was built of brick, and many of the walls were adorned with figures of bulls, as shown in the picture on the opposite page. The site was for centuries covered deep with dust and earth, the accumulation of ages. Only a small part of it has been uncovered.

Such was the great Babylonian capital when in the midst of Belshazzar's feast with a thousand of his lords the handwriting on the wall indicated the doom that was soon to follow.[1]



Bringing Tribute to the Persian King

Bas-relief from a palace at Persep'olis.

34. Cyrus the Great and the Persian Empire. — The Chaldean Empire was short-lived. About 550 B.C. the Chaldeans were conquered by a people who swarmed in great numbers into the valley of the twin rivers from the highlands of south-central Asia — the Persians, an Aryan or Indo-European people closely allied with the Medes. This was nearly 2500 years ago. For thousands of years, from the earliest dawn of history, the Hamitic and Semitic peoples had been the leaders of human progress; but from that day to the present the Indo-European branch of the Caucasian race has been master of the civilization of the world.

Cy'rus the Great, the conqueror of Babylon and the builder of the Persian Empire, was one of the most admirable rulers of ancient times. He made many conquests, but he was neither cruel nor selfish in his relations to those who came under his rule. He released the Jews from their captivity and permitted them to return to their beloved land.

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[1] See Daniel, ch. 5.

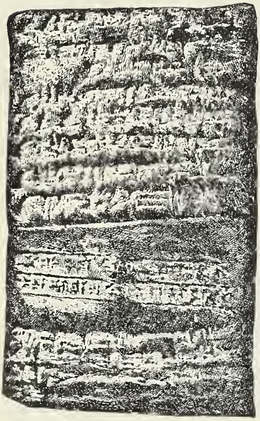
The Persian Empire reached its height under Dari'us, about 500 B.C., when it extended from the Indus River in India to the Ægean Sea, and embraced nearly all of the known world. From the capital, Susa (sōō'sa), great roads radiated to many parts of the empire. One of them, extending nearly to the Ægean, was about 1700 miles long. The Persian Empire flourished a little more than two hundred years; its wars with the Greeks will be noticed in later chapters.

II. LIFE AND PROGRESS OF THE MESOPOTAMIAN PEOPLES

35. Excavations and Discoveries. — For many ages the history of the valley of the two rivers, where had flourished a teeming population for a period longer than that between the time of Moses and our own day, remained almost unknown. In 1843 A.D. a Frenchman discovered, under a hillock near the Tigris, the ruined palace of an Assyrian king. This remarkable discovery, which proved to be on the site of Nineveh, drew the attention of Europe and America to the possible historic treasures of the great valley, and many expeditions have been sent to search out the ruins of the buried cities.

Vast numbers of tablets, statues, and inscriptions have been found. These include a great library at Nineveh and the Code of Hammurabi at Susa. From these a great deal has been learned of the customs, laws, government, and wars of those interesting people of the past; but much remains yet to be learned, and the work is still going on. During the military operations of the British in Mesopotamia in the World War, it was found that the sites of buried ruins, because of variations in the vegetation over them, could be easily detected by means of photographs taken from airplanes.

The Egyptian writing, as we have seen, grew up from pictures and symbols. The Sumerian writing, used also by the Babylonians and Assyrians, was likewise made up of pictures at first, but these word signs were then changed so much, for rapid writing, that they no longer looked like pictures. A word sign or syllable sign was made up of a number of small marks shaped like a wedge. This writing is therefore termed cuneiform (ku-nē′ĭ-form), from the Latin *cu′neus*, a wedge. Each wedge-shaped mark was made by pressing the end of a stylus into a tablet of soft clay; when the writing was finished the clay was baked, making the record permanent.[1]



Cuneiform Tablet

Unearthed by the Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania. This records the sale of part of a house about 2000 B.C.

36. A Very Old Schoolhouse. — The discovery of the ruins of a Babylonian schoolhouse supposed to be of the time of Hammurabi, 4000 years ago, was made in 1894 by European excavators. It was a large one-story building of sun-dried brick with several rooms, the outer walls inclosing an inner court that opened to the sky. In this building perhaps for many generations the young people sat on their rude seats and pored over their mud slates learning to write.

Instead of a pencil or a pen the Babylonian and Assyrian boys and girls used a straight-cut stick or reed called a stylus. When pressed into soft clay this made a straight mark, wider at one end than the other, giving the appearance of a wedge. The syllable or word to be written was indicated by the differing positions and combinations of the marks, as illustrated in the figure below.

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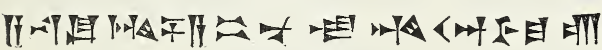
[1] The Behistun (bā-hĭs-tōōn′) rock, a cliff in Persia 1700 feet in height, has done for modern scholars in Babylonia what the Rosetta stone did in Egypt. About 500 feet above the ground are inscriptions in three languages, — Persian, Susian, and Babylonian, all chiseled in cuneiform about 500 B.C. They were read first in 1835–1845 by Sir Henry Rawlinson.

When the boys and girls arrived at school, each on entering the door received a ball of soft clay. This was flattened out with a flat piece of wood and it served as a slate or pencil tablet. If the work was not well done the pupil could erase it by again smoothing over the clay. He had to learn several hundred syllables and words, and we can imagine that it required months and perhaps years to learn to write. On the floor of the above-mentioned schoolhouse many of the clay balls and written tablets were found.



CUNEIFORM WRITING

Translation: "I am Assurbanipal, descendant of Assur and Beltis." Assurbanipal was a king of Assyria.

37. Social Conditions and Contrasts. — The cuneiform tablets tell us of the gods and the kings and the battles of Mesopotamian nations, but not much of the common people. However, of the life of the people we can gather a little here and there.

The Babylonians were more cultured, more generally educated, more religious, and more industrious than the Assyrians. In Babylon the priest was supreme, the king himself being a priest; in Assyria the army was supreme and the king was a general.

In both countries polygamy was legal, but was practiced only by the rich. If a man had no children he adopted children, who became his legal heirs. Herodotus, the Greek historian, relates that in Babylonian towns it was at one time the custom to assemble all the girls of a certain age once a year to give them in marriage. The prettiest were sold to the highest bidders, and the money they brought was used to purchase husbands for the plainest.

Among the rich the process of arranging a marriage was interesting. The father of the young man, after consulting with the mother as to whom they would like for a daughter-in-law, would propose to the parents of the young lady on whom the choice fell. Perhaps the prospective bride is a girl of only thirteen or fourteen years. She may be accomplished. That is, she can sing and play the harp; she can keep house and can write on clay tablets. The two fathers meet and bargain, perhaps for a whole day, fixing the bride's dowry. It is finally decided that she shall have a certain amount of furniture, chests and clothing, household necessities, and three slaves. These slaves were probably in the home when she was born and they have known her from infancy. The wedding is set for one week later.

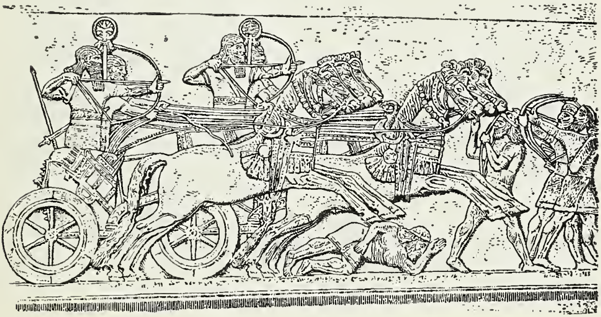
The young girl is informed that she is to be married in a week, and she spends a busy week in preparation. Her girl friends come in to help and advise her and above all " to chatter noisily all day long." As the happy day approaches she adorns herself. She blackens her eyebrows and paints her cheeks; she dyes the palms of her hands and her finger nails. Her future husband has never seen her and she is anxious that his first view of his bride be pleasing to him.

The wedding day has come. The astrologers have consulted the stars and pronounced it a lucky day. The marriage is solemnized with religious ceremony; the bride's veil is lifted; the remainder of the day is spent in dancing and merrymaking to the music of the harp. As night comes the young bride must leave her childhood home. She bursts into tears and clings long to her mother — a part of the ceremony. Then in the company of her husband she wends her way on foot to their new home.

38. **Government and War.** — Like all the other great Oriental nations, Babylonia and Assyria were absolute monarchies. The people were docile and ever ready to obey their masters; and even to this day the peoples of the Orient are less conscious of political and civil rights than those of Europe and America.

The kings of Babylonia and Assyria governed through a grand vizier and other royal officers. Assyria was the imitator of Babylonia in many respects, but in the art of war she far surpassed her southern neighbor. One reason for this was that Assyria was the first great nation to use iron instead of bronze weapons. In one room the modern excavators of Nineveh found two hundred tons of iron war-implements.

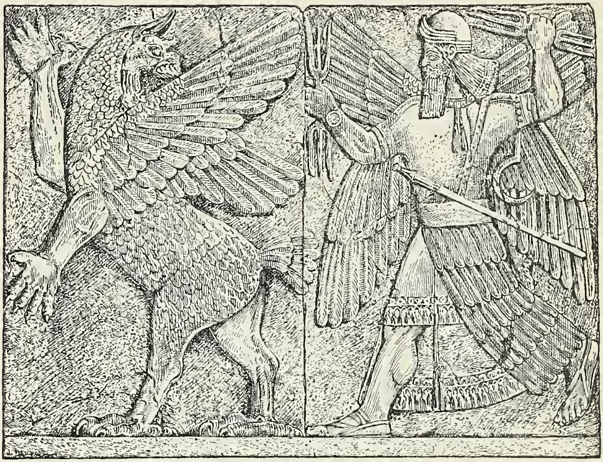
An Assyrian warrior was thoroughly trained and he was better equipped than any other warrior of his time. The spearmen wore conical iron caps with side pieces to protect the ears. The chest was protected by a leather shirt with overlapping metal scales, and in addition the whole body was protected by an immense metal shield. The archers wore no shields and instead of a spear each one carried a bow and quiver. The Assyrian chariot was larger and heavier than the Egyptian. It carried two or three men — a driver, a warrior, and often a groom to protect the other two with a large shield.



ASSYRIAN WAR CHARIOTS

From an Assyrian bas-relief. Notice that each chariot is drawn by three horses.

39. Religion. — The people of the great valley were very religious; their art, their literature, and their architecture were inspired by religion. The Assyrians borrowed their religion for the most part from Babylon, but they called their chief god Assur, while in Babylon the chief god was called Marduk, or Bel. Below these supreme gods were many inferior ones representing the sun, the moon, the stars, and other objects of nature. Moreover, many demons and evil spirits were supposed to be prowling around to do men harm. These had to be banished by magic and sorcery.



Marduk, Armed with Thunderbolts, in Battle with the Spirit of Chaos

Babylonian bas-relief now in the British Museum

The Persians gave the ancient world one of the great religious leaders of history — Zoroaster (zō-ro-ăs′ter), who flourished sometime before 700 B.C.

Zoroaster taught that there are two great gods, one good and the other evil. The good god, Ormazd (or′muzd), created the human race and everything that is good — light and fire, water, the grains and fruits of the earth, and all other things that contribute to man's welfare. The wicked god, Ah′riman, created all that is harmful and unclean — cold, darkness, drought, thorns and thistles, serpents and noisome insects.

Between the two gods there was continuous warfare, the one striving to aid man and give him comfort, the other to annoy and distress him. Man's religious duties consisted in aiding Ormazd in overcoming evil. It was a religious act to build a fire, to raise grain or fruit, or to kill serpents and other unclean animals. Zoroaster taught that in the end Ormazd would reign triumphant over all things and that the soul of the righteous would rest forever in his bosom. The religion of Zoroaster was embraced by millions of people. It flourished for more than a thousand years, but in the seventh century A.D. it was almost stamped out by the Mohammedan armies.

40. **Literature; Architecture; Sculpture.** — The literature of Babylonia was chiefly religious, composed of myths, legends, and hymns to the gods. There were histories also, recounting the doings of the kings, and works on science, especially astronomy. In certain long poems called epics we find an account of the Creation by one of the great gods, and an account of the flood which in some respects is strikingly similar to the account given in the Book of Genesis.

The Babylonians were great builders, but as the alluvial bottom of the great valley was without building stone, the material used was brick. Their brick buildings, unlike the stone structures of Egypt, have crumbled to dust. We learn from the inscriptions that many of them were grand and imposing, and some of them, built in receding stories, reached a great height.

Sculpture was employed in adorning the walls of the temples and palaces. But Babylonian sculpture, like that of Egypt, was without perspective, was stiff and monotonous and wanting in grace.

The Assyrians used both stone and brick in their buildings, and their sculpture marked some advance over the Babylonian models; but they fell far short of the standards later set by the Greeks.

41. **Chaldean Astrology and Astronomy.** — Through the clear atmosphere of Babylonia the stars gleam with marvelous brilliancy, and the Chaldean priests from the earliest times studied

the heavens. They devised a system of astrology by which they foretold a man's career by the position of the stars and planets at the moment of his birth. Thousands of years later we find Chaldean astrology diffused over Europe, and to this day such expressions as "lucky star" and "thank my stars" attest our inheritance from those remote ages.

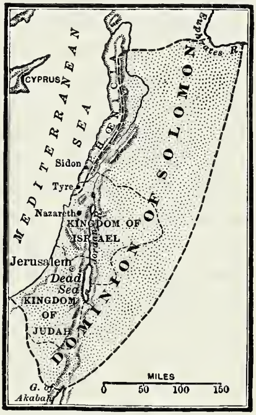
From astrology the Chaldeans and Babylonians rose to the study of astronomy. It is true that their premises were false and their conclusions were often erroneous. They believed the earth to be a great inverted bowl or shell, its outer edges resting on the great outer ocean. The sky, they thought, was another, greater bowl; its concave side, in which the stars were placed, being turned toward the earth.

In spite of such erroneous notions it is remarkable how much they learned about the universe, as they studied the sky year after year and century after century from their lofty temples. Like the Egyptians, they determined the length of the year and divided it into months and weeks. Their day was divided into twelve hours, each hour being double one of our own. They learned to foretell eclipses with accuracy. They measured time by the sundial and the water clock. They distinguished the planets, of which they knew but five, from the stars, and gave their names to five of the days of the week. It may be said that astronomical studies of all nations since those early times have been based on the findings of the Chaldeans and Babylonians. It is from them also that we have our division of the hour into sixty minutes, of the minute into sixty seconds; for in the Babylonian system of counting the number sixty had the same importance that the number one hundred has in our system.

III. The Hebrews and Phœnicians

42. Palestine and its People. — In a little country about half the size of West Virginia, lying between the Jordan River and the Dead Sea on the east and the Mediterranean on the west, dwelt a pastoral people who have maintained to this day a separate existence as no other ancient people have done. They were the Jews or Hebrews, a Semitic people whose ancestor, Abraham, had migrated from the Babylonian land beyond the Euphrates.

Palestine was a goodly land. The climate was healthful. The soil, of varying fertility, was broken by hills and gorges with here and there a plain, and the hills were covered with vines and olive, fig, and almond trees. The valleys abounded in luxuriant pastures. Through the country ran the routes of trade between the empires of the Nile and the Euphrates valleys.



PALESTINE

The peculiar people who occupied this little land between the rushing Jordan and the great Midland Sea have profoundly influenced the civilized world of to-day. To them we are indebted for a fine portion of our literature and for most of our religion.

We are justly proud of our modern democracy, but the Hebrews lived for centuries under an almost pure democracy more than 3000 years ago and long before the Greeks established their democracies. Our equality before the law had its prototype among the Jude′an hills. We boast of our humane societies and homes for the aged and poor; the whole Hebrew commonwealth was a humane society — the beast of burden was given its day of rest the same as man, the nesting bird could not be taken, and the reaper had to leave something in the field to be gleaned by the widow and the fatherless.

43. **Hebrew History.** — Our knowledge of the history of the Hebrews is derived almost wholly from their sacred books, the writing of which covered many centuries. In their collected form we know them as the Old Testament, which is by far the most

important national record given to the world by any people before the rise of the Greek nation.

It is needless here to recount the story so well known — of Abraham and his simple pastoral life, of Jacob and his twelve sons, of the selling of Joseph by his jealous brothers, of the long sojourn in Egypt and the long wandering in the wilderness under the leadership of the great lawgiver Moses.

When the Hebrews took possession of part of Palestine, they set up what we should call a republic, but after several hundred years they grew tired of their form of government and changed it into a kingdom, in imitation of the nations about them. The first three kings, Saul, David, and Solomon, were able rulers and each ruled forty years. David was one of the great men of the ancient world. He was not only a statesman and warrior, but he was a poet of a high order of merit. The kingdom reached its greatest glory under Solomon (tenth century B.C.). He made an alliance with Hiram, king of Tyre, and carried on an extensive trade with Egypt and with other lands. He built a magnificent temple and sumptuous palaces. Against the principles of the Jewish religion, Solomon took an Egyptian wife and assumed the pomp of an Oriental monarch. He taxed the people to the breaking point. After his death, when his son refused to lighten the burdens of the people, ten of the twelve tribes revolted and set up a separate kingdom.

The two remaining tribes retained Jerusalem as their capital, and were known as the kingdom of Judah; the ten revolting tribes were known as the kingdom of Israel (ĭz′rā-ĕl). Though often friendly, the two were never reunited, and after the time of Solomon the Hebrews never held a commanding position among the powers. The ten tribes of Israel were conquered and carried away by the Assyrians (722 B.C.) and were thus "lost" as a separate nation. The two tribes of Judah were rescued from a similar fate by Cyrus the Great (sec. 34); but thenceforth their home land was but a province in one empire after another, with brief intervals of freedom.

44. Hebrew Religion. — The Hebrew religion differed greatly from that of any other ancient people. The chief point of difference lay in the fact that the Hebrews alone were monotheistic, that is, believers in one God; all other ancient peoples were polytheistic, believers in many gods. The Hebrews taught that there is one Almighty God (Yahveh or Jehovah) who created and sustains the universe, and that all other gods with their local and limited interests and power were but figments of the imagination.

Other important differences between the Hebrew religion and other religions were: (1) Other nations worshiped idols and heavenly bodies and mundane objects; the Jews were forbidden to do so, or even to make unto themselves or bow down to any graven image or likeness of anything in the heavens above or on the earth beneath. (2) Again, nearly all ancient peoples claimed divine descent for their rulers. No such claim was ever made by the Hebrews. (3) Finally, the Hebrew religion was the only ancient religion that furnished no direct teaching concerning a future life. This is explained by the Christian world as having been divinely designed in order that this final and supreme revelation should be reserved for the One who was to be born to the house of David in the fullness of time. It is a remarkable fact that the Hebrew sacred books are adopted by the people of every nation of Europe and America, constituting nearly all there is of modern civilization, as an accepted part of their religious foundations.

45. Hebrew Literature. — In art, science, sculpture, and architecture the Hebrews did not excel. Doubtless the injunction against making graven images and likenesses had something to do with discouraging such pursuits. But in literature they far surpassed any other people of their time.

The Book of Job is pronounced by many the greatest poem in human language, but it does not greatly surpass the Psalms of David and the Prophecy of Isaiah (ī-zā'ya). Many other parts of the Old Testament are of great literary merit. The stately grandeur of the story of Creation in the opening chapters, the pastoral simplicity of the story of Joseph and of the Book of Ruth, are unrivaled in their literary charm.

46. **The Phœnicians.** — Phœnicia, " the land of Tyre and Sidon," was a strip of coast but a few miles wide and one hundred fifty miles in length, between the lofty range of the Lebanon Mountains and the Mediterranean Sea. In shape it was similar to the modern Chile in South America.

The Phœnicians were Semites, akin to the Hebrews, with a similar language but an immeasurably inferior religion. They were the trading people of antiquity. They " took to the sea " no doubt because their narrow little country could not support their growing population. Fearless and daring, they patiently plowed the seas with their swan-breasted craft built of the cedars of Lebanon, and to avoid awakening rivals they tried to keep secret their routes and their discoveries.[1] They brought tin from the British Isles and silver and gold from Spain, birds from the Canary Islands, pearls and ivory from India, and fine linen and embroideries from Egypt. For hundreds of years the Phœnicians controlled the trade of the Mediterranean.

The Phœnicians also took the lead in trading by land. In Babylonia and Egypt they had their trading posts, and held them when threats of war frightened other foreigners away. The spices, perfumes, and incenses from Arabia for Greece and the West passed through Phœnician hands.

In art and science the Phœnicians seldom originated new ideas, but they developed the ideas of others and became the most skillful textile workers of the ancient world. Their chief product was a purple dye derived from the murex, a small shellfish. At many of their trading posts the Phœnicians founded colonies, and one of these, Carthage (kar′thāj) in north Africa, came to surpass the mother country.

For many centuries the Phœnicians were regarded as the inventors of the first alphabet. Recent researches, however, disclose the fact that the Egyptians had a phonetic alphabet at least

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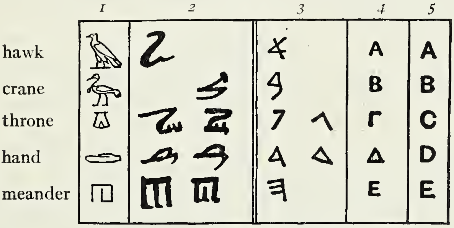
[1] For the trade of Tyre read the 27th chapter of Ezekiel.

3000 years B.C., which is 2000 years earlier than the Phœnicians are credited with having invented it. There is also evidence that an alphabet was in use in Crete at a very early age. To what extent the Phœnicians borrowed the idea of the alphabet from Egypt or Babylonia or Crete has not been determined. It remains true, however, that the Phœnician alphabet is the one from which ours is derived. The Phœnicians carried the alphabet to Greece and the Greeks gave it to Rome.



Development of the Alphabet

1, Egyptian hieroglyphic; *2*, Egyptian hieratic, or script form of hieroglyphic; *3*, Phœnician; *4*, Greek; *5*, Roman.

47. Our Heritage from the Orient. — With this brief review of the ancient lands of the Orient — Egypt, Mesopotamia, and adjacent regions — we must take our leave of these interesting peoples, as in later times they contributed little to the progress and development of the world's civilization.

As we have seen, we are indebted to the Orient for many of the indispensable features of our modern life. Aside from the common inheritance from prehistoric man of the use of fire, of metals, and the growth of language, and in addition to the unmeasured influence of the Hebrew religion on the world of to-day, our debt to the Orientals is immense. To them we are indebted for the beginnings of our system of astronomy, of art and sculpture, of architecture, and indeed of almost all our arts and sciences. We have accepted almost without change their divisions of the year into months and days and their division of the day into hours, minutes, and seconds. They gave us the alphabet and the means of writing, indispensable to all civilization. Even in the industrial pursuits — weaving, wood carving, working in iron, shipbuilding, and other things — our debt to these people of a long past age is very great.

Side Talk

The Story of Crœsus. — In many languages the expression, " as rich as Crœsus " is well known. Crœsus was not only a man of great wealth, he was also the king of Lyd′ia, an extensive country in Asia Minor, from 560 to 546 B.C. Herodotus, the Greek historian, gives a very interesting account of the reign of this king.

Many Greeks visited the court of Crœsus, and he took delight in showing them his costly treasures. One of these Greeks was So′lon, the famous Athenian lawgiver. After Solon had been shown the wonderful treasures of the palace of Sardis, the capital of Lydia, Crœsus asked him whom he considered the happiest man he had ever seen. This he asked because he thought himself the happiest of mortals, and expected Solon to agree with him. Solon answered, " Tellus of Athens." The king in astonishment asked why he thought as he did. Solon answered that it was because Tellus lived in a prosperous country, raised an interesting and excellent family, and after a long life of comfort died gloriously in battle fighting for his country. He contended that happiness did not come from wealth, but rather from contentment, good health, and an upright life.

The dominions of Crœsus extended from the Ha′lys River to the Ægean (e-jē′an) Sea, and included many Greek cities. Following the Greek custom, he made rich presents to the oracle at Delphi (sec. 62), and asked for advice whether or not to make war on Cyrus, the king of Persia. The answer was " Crœsus, having crossed the Halys, will destroy a great empire." He was thus encouraged to invade the territory of Cyrus, but he was defeated and taken prisoner: the empire that he destroyed was his own.

Cyrus ordered that a great pile be thrown up and Crœsus be bound in fetters and cast upon it. It was then set on fire by order of Cyrus. Of this Herodotus says, " I know not whether Cyrus was minded to make an offering to some god or other, or whether he had vowed a vow and was performing it, or whether he had heard that Crœsus was a holy man, and so wished to see if any of the heavenly powers would appear to save him from being burned alive."

As the flames crept near Crœsus cried out, " Solon, Solon, Solon." Cyrus heard him and bade the interpreters find out the meaning. He told them of the Athenian sage and expressed the wish that every monarch could hear his words of wisdom. King Cyrus became interested and ordered his men to put out the fire. They tried to do so but found it impossible. Suddenly a dashing shower of rain fell and quenched the blaze. Cyrus was convinced that some god had sent the rain to save the life of the Lydian king. He ordered that Crœsus be unbound and brought to sit beside him. Crœsus begged that Sardis be not destroyed nor the people sold into slavery. Cyrus granted the favor and made Crœsus a companion in his campaigns.

Questions and Topics. — I. In what respects do the Euphrates and Tigris rivers resemble the Nile? Why do people choose a river valley for a home rather than a mountainous region? What do you know of the Sumerians? of Hammurabi and his code of laws? Why were the Assyrians more warlike than the Babylonians? Describe ancient Babylon. What was the important racial difference between the Babylonians and the Persians? Describe the Persian Empire.

II. Describe cuneiform writing. What is the Behistun rock? In what respects do the Babylonians and Assyrians differ? Describe a Babylonian wedding. What is the difference as regards political rights between the Orientals and the Americans? Describe the Assyrian warrior. Contrast the religion of the Babylonians with that of the Persians. Who was the founder of the Persian religion? Why has Babylonian architecture perished while that of Egypt still exists? What fundamental errors were there in the Chaldean system of astronomy? How did the Chaldeans divide the day, the hour, and the minute?

III. Describe the topography of Palestine. Give a brief history of the Hebrews. What is monotheism? In what respects did the Hebrew religion differ from that of other nations? What do you know of Hebrew literature? For what were the Phœnicians noted? Why was the Phœnician alphabet important? In what respects is our modern life affected by the ancient Orient?

Events and Characters. — Hammurabi and his law code, 2100 B.C. Assyrian monarchy. Fall of Nineveh, 606 B.C. Cyrus the Great founds Persian Empire, rescues the Jews from captivity.

For Further Reading. — Maspero, *Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria.* Botsford, *Source Book of Ancient History.* Morey, *Ancient Peoples.* Seignobos, *History of Ancient Civilization*, Chs. IV, VII, and VIII; this book, translated from the French, is interesting and scholarly.

ANCIENT GREECE

CHAPTER IV

PREHISTORIC GREECE

I. The Land and the Early Inhabitants

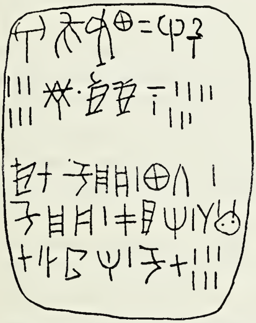
For several thousand years the highest forms of human civilization were confined to the Orient, while Europe was peopled only by uncultured barbarians. But about 500 years before our era the scepter passed across the narrow sea into Europe, and from that day to this the Europeans with their American descendants have led the world in civilization and progress. The first of the European peoples to loom into the light of history and to leave the world a record of themselves were the Greeks, who, from a mythical ancestor Hellen, called themselves Hellenes (hĕl′ēnz).

48. The Land of the Hellenes. — Southern Europe is composed of three great peninsulas. The southern portion of the most easterly of these is Greece, which lies mainly between the Ionian (ī-ō′ni-an) and the Ægean seas. It is a small country, not so large as the state of Florida. The land is broken by rugged mountains and deep gorges. There are many narrow valleys and rushing streams, too small and rapid for navigation. The country is cut by numerous bays and inlets, which extend far into the land and supply the place of navigable streams. One of these, the Gulf of Cor′inth, is a great rift almost severing the country into two parts. Another completely divides Eubœ′a from the mainland (map following page 72).

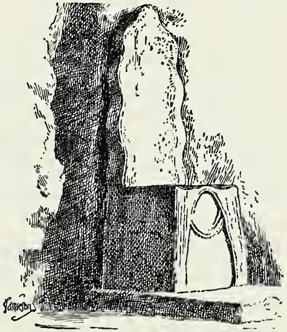
Between the mainland and Asia Minor the sea is strewn with many islands, the peaks of submerged mountains. So numerous are these islands that the navigator of the Ægean Sea is never out of sight of land. These islands, and also the Ægean coast of

Asia Minor, were occupied by the ancient Greeks and shared with Greece proper in the great drama of Greek history.

The climate of Greece is neither cold nor hot. It is bracing, tempered by the nearness of the sea, and well adapted to promote a vigorous race. The gorgeous landscape, the gleaming heavens, and the ever-murmuring sea at the foot of the mountains inspired this remarkable people with their love of the beautiful and sublime, which found expression in their literature and art. The soil of Greece was not well adapted to agriculture, but the valleys and hillsides abounded in vines and in fig and olive trees.



Clay Tablet from Crete, Showing Minoan Writing



So-called "Throne of Minos" Found at Cnossus in Crete

The center of Minoan civilization four thousand years ago, Crete was later conquered by Greeks, Romans, Venetians (ve-nē′shanz), and Turks. Turkish rule was not ended till near the end of the nineteenth century. The island is now part of modern Greece.

49. The People who Preceded the Greeks. — The Greeks were not the first people to occupy Greece. Within the past half century it has been discovered that a highly civilized people occupied Greece, the Ægean Islands, western Asia Minor, and Crete about 2000 B.C. and earlier, before the coming of the Greeks. They are called Mino′ans from the name of a traditional king of Crete, for this island was the center of their civilization.

Recent excavations in Crete have revealed evidence of an advanced prehistoric civilization. Many palaces have been unearthed, that of Cnossus (nŏs′sus) in the northern part being the most important. Since 1900 A.D. more than two thousand clay tablets have been found in the ruins of this palace, but no one has yet been able to read them.

In various parts of the island stone vases and ivory figures have been found, and, on the walls of the palaces, lifelike scenes of warriors, wrestlers, and gladiators, and miniature figures of court ladies.

Excavations of ancient Troy in Asia Minor, begun in 1870, and of Myce′næ in Greece, have proved wonderfully rich in historic relics. The Minoan civilization almost rivaled that of Egypt and Babylonia, but was on the decline at the coming of the Greeks. If some Rosetta stone or Behistun rock shall in future reveal the secrets of the clay tablets of the Minoans, a storehouse of rich historic lore will be opened.

50. The Early Greeks. — It has been impossible to determine when the Greeks first arrived in the land that came to be called Greece; it is supposed to have been as early as 2000 B.C. They came from the north as wandering shepherd tribes driving their flocks and herds. They had rude wooden carts drawn by horses, because they had tamed the wild horse and invented the cart. But they had not learned to write, and so left no written account of their journey. As time passed, their descendants, forgetting all about the long journey of their ancestors, came to believe that they were the product of the soil of Greece.

The Greeks had a tradition of a flood, similar to the Bible record. In the far past, they said, the wickedness of man had provoked the gods to sweep the earth with a deluge. Only two people were saved — Deucalion and his wife, who floated in an ark. Later they had two sons. One of them was named Hellen. He became the ancestor of the Greek people, who always called themselves Hellenes and their land Hellas. But the world has adopted the name Greek, which was given them by the Romans.

The descendants of Hellen, according to the legend, were divided into four great tribes — the Achæans (a-kē′anz), the Do′rians, the Ionians, and the Æo′lians.

The first great wave of Greek nomads that swept southward over the land were the Achæans. A second wave, the Dorians, a more warlike people, came a few centuries later, perhaps about 1500 B.C. The Dorians conquered their kinsmen the Achæans, and the remaining Minoans, and took possession of many islands, including Crete. Later the Ionians occupied the middle portion of the country and the Æolians the northern part. It is believed that by 1000 B.C. the whole land, including the Ægean Islands and the western coast of Asia Minor, was occupied by this virile nomadic people from the north. The Greeks belonged to the Indo-European race. Many of the Minoans no doubt remained after the conquest and were amalgamated with their conquerors. The Greeks of history were the descendants of the two races.

When the Greeks came from the north they were in the pastoral stage (sec. 4). They wandered about in tribes, driving their flocks, fighting their neighbors, and hunting wild animals. The men and women dressed alike in the skins of the animals thus obtained.[1] But at length they began to till the soil. Their farm implements were very crude and the soil was not very fertile, but the industry proved a great step in the direction of a higher civilization. It not only furnished them with a new source of obtaining food in addition to their herds, but also led them to settle down and become landowners with fixed homes and to develop a better form of government.

51. Coming of the Phœnicians. — The rude barbarian nomads whom we have seen rolling in great waves from the Balkan regions into Greece were destined to build up the finest civilization of ancient times. The development of Greek civilization may be said to have had three basal causes: (1) the Greeks were by nature strong, vigorous, and highly intellectual; (2) they picked up from the vanishing race that occupied the land before them the rudiments of a settled life and a higher culture; (3) they came into early contact with the civilized nations of the Orient, especially the Phœnicians.

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[1] So it is related by Thucydides (thū̇-sĭd′ĭ-dēz), a Greek historian of the fifth century B.C.

The Phœnicians were the great traders of antiquity (sec. 46). They were not long in finding the newcomers in Ægean lands, not long in making them good customers for their wares. We can picture the mooring of a Phœnician vessel in one of the many fine harbors on the coast of Greece, and the eager gatherings of the skin-clad natives, men and women, to gaze with curious eyes on the wonders from the eastern lands. Here they saw many things beautiful and useful which they did not produce at home — carvings in wood and metal, alabaster and glass bottles, combs of polished ivory, porcelain wares, woven fabrics of wool and linen richly colored, jewelry and ornamental vases, and metal farm implements far better than any made in Greece.

The Greeks were an artistic people and they were imitative. They not only purchased freely from the eastern merchants, trading the products of their herds and of the olive and the vine for the Oriental wares, but they also greatly improved their own work with these models before them. At length they excelled their teachers. In decorative art they surpassed not only the Phœnicians, but all other peoples of antiquity.

The greatest gift brought to the Greeks by the Phœnicians was the alphabet as a means of writing, the greatest instrument of civilization. The Phœnician traders kept their accounts on Egyptian papyrus, using an alphabet of twenty-two letters. The imitative Greeks borrowed this alphabet, made some improvements in it, and adapted it to Greek words.[1] It is supposed that the Greeks learned to write about 900 B.C. From this time forth their advance in culture and civilization was very rapid.

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[1] Our word alphabet comes from the names of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet, Alpha (A) and Beta (B). The Greeks had borrowed these names, changed somewhat, from the Phœnician Aleph and Beth.

52. Divisions of the Land. — The Greeks claimed a common ancestor, worshiped the same gods, and spoke the same language; but they were never a united people. There were perhaps two reasons for this: first, their dwelling amid the wilds of the mountain regions had fostered in them a spirit of unrestrained liberty, and second, their land was so broken and divided by mountains and gorges that communication was difficult. In the early days the governments in Greece were merely those of great families or clans, but later when the people became more settled the clans combined and formed little kingdoms, of which there were several hundred. Many of the kingdoms at length gave way to the larger Greek states.

The Greek states were city-states, similar to those of early Babylonia (sec. 29). Usually the surrounding territory, with its villages and farm lands, belonged to the city. Some of these city-states, as Athens, included considerable territory; others were scarcely more than the city and its immediate suburbs.

These little independent nations made war and peace and had their foreign relations. Sometimes they were in league with one another, again they were at war among themselves. The most famous of the Greek cities were Athens, in At'tica, and Sparta, in Laco'nia, a division of southern Greece. Laconia was the southeastern section of the Peloponne'sus, a name given to that portion of the Grecian mainland south of the Gulf of Corinth. Athens and Sparta will be treated more fully in a later chapter.

A few of the other more important divisions of Greece should be noted: (1) Arca'dia[1] occupied the central portion of the Peloponnesus and was shut off from the sea by mountain barriers. It was the home of a simple pastoral people. To this day we speak of rustic country life as "Arcadian." To the northeast of Arcadia was (2) Corin'thia, which comprised the narrow neck of land joining the Peloponnesus with central Greece; in it was situated the famous city of Corinth. (3) E'lis, in the western part of the Peloponnesus, was noted for the city of Olympia, the seat of the famous Olympian games.

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[1] These divisions of Greece should be studied in connection with the map following page 72.

Among the divisions of central Greece were (4) Bœotia (be-ō′-shi-a), a large section northwest of Attica, with its renowned city of Thebes (thēbz), and (5) Phocis, the seat of the famous oracle of Delphi.

In northern Greece were two extensive countries, (6) Epi′rus, which stretches far along the coast of the Ionian Sea, and (7) Thes′saly, which consists for the most part of an extensive and beautiful valley, the only large valley in all Greece. In the northeastern corner of Thessaly rises the lonely peak Mt. Olympus, the loftiest in Greece. It was here, according to the Greek mythology, that the gods dwelt.

II. MYTHICAL HEROES AND LEGENDS

53. Importance of the Myths. — The historical period of Greece does not begin before the eighth century B.C. At the dawn of Greek history there was a wealth of fable and mythology such as no other people ever possessed. Many of the wonderful stories of the heroic past, which had been handed down unwritten from generation to generation, were doubtless founded on facts; others were pure fiction. Even after Greece had reached the height of her civilization the deeds of the gods and the demigods and the heroes of the mythical past continued to be celebrated in song and story, in poetry, art, and sculpture. The Greeks believed these legends, were inspired by them, and built their civilization upon them. No student can understand Greek history without some knowledge of the legends of the early period.

54. Mythical Founders of Cities. — One group of legends is made up of the mythical accounts of the founding of cities. The rocky eminence on which Athens was founded was first occupied, according to the fable, by Ce′crops, half man and half dragon. He grouped the people into tribes and started them on the way of civilized life.

The story of the founding of the Bœotian city of Thebes is more dramatic. Cadmus was a son of a king of Phœnicia. His sister Euro′pa was stolen away by the god Zeus (zūs; Jupiter), and Cadmus searched for her many years. At length he came to Bœotia and slew a dragon. A voice commanded him to sow the dragon's teeth, which he did. Presently a crop of armed men sprang up. They fell to fighting and all were slain but five. These five joined with Cadmus in building the city of Thebes. Cadmus was said to have brought the alphabet from Phœnicia and to have taught the people to write.

Pe′lops was a hero from Lydia, a kingdom in Asia Minor. He was a suitor for the hand of a princess, the daughter of the king of a city in Elis. The king had decreed that in order to win his daughter, a suitor must defeat him in a chariot race from Elis to the Isthmus of Corinth. The penalty for losing was death. Thirteen had made the attempt. All had lost and all had been beheaded. But Pelops induced the king's charioteer to aid him by improperly fastening the wheels of the king's chariot. Pelops won the race and won his bride. He became the ancestor of many noted Greeks, and all southern Greece was called Peloponnesus after his name.

55. **Theseus, the Hero of Attica.** — The Greeks had many stories of heroes and demigods of the early period. Among these was Theseus (thē′sūs), son of Ægeus (ē′jūs), king of Athens. Theseus became a mighty hero who went about the country slaying wild beasts and monsters. Of the many stories related of him, perhaps the most famous was his slaying of the Min′otaur. Long before the time of Theseus Athens had been at war with Crete. Athens was defeated, and the king of Crete exacted as tribute every year seven youths and seven maidens to feed the Minotaur, a devouring monster that was kept in a winding labyrinth. Theseus volunteered to be one of the youths to be sacrificed. They set out in a vessel with black sails, and Theseus promised his father that if he were successful in slaying the monster, he would return with white sails.

When they reached Crete, Ariad′ne, daughter of the Cretan king, fell in love with Theseus and secretly handed him a dagger with which to slay the monster. The Athenian prince succeeded in killing the Minotaur and set sail for Athens. But he forgot to change his black sails for white ones, and when his father Ægeus saw the black-sailed ship approaching he believed that his son was dead. In his grief he threw himself into the sea and was drowned. From this the sea was called after his name — the Ægean Sea.

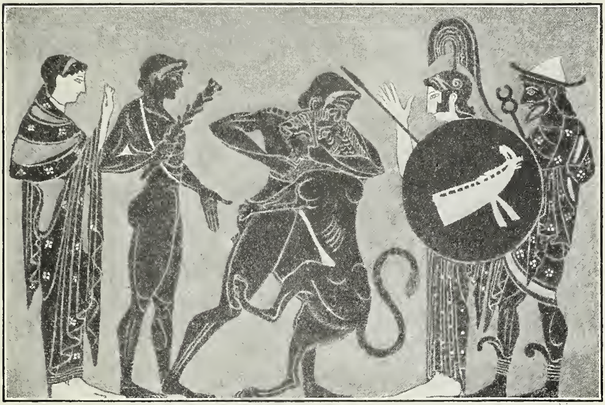
56. **Stories of Hercules.** — The most famous of the mythical heroes of Greece was Hercules (hûr′kū-lēz), called Heracles (hĕr′-a-klēz) by the Greeks. This hero was the son of a human mother, but his father was the god Zeus (Jupiter). When He′ra (Juno), the wife of Zeus, heard of the child's birth she was angry and she sent two huge serpents to destroy him in his cradle. But the infant hero seized the reptiles and strangled them. This was the beginning of his wonderful career of adventure. He spent his life fighting monsters and performing great deeds. For a year he was bound to serve the king of Mycenæ, in the Peloponnesus, and the king gave him twelve labors to perform such as no human being could have accomplished.

The first of these was to slay the Neme′an lion, a ferocious beast of the Nemean forest (in Argolis) which carried off and devoured men, women, and live stock. Hercules strangled the monster as he had strangled the serpents when an infant. He then skinned it and ever after he was pictured with a lion skin hanging over his shoulder.

Another of the twelve tasks was to clean the Auge′an stables. The king of Elis had immense droves of cattle. The stables which they occupied had not been cleaned for years, and Hercules was sent to clean them. He did this by changing the course of the Alphe′us River, a rushing stream hard by, and causing the water to run through the stables.

One of the most charming of the stories of Hercules is the legend of his quest of the Golden Apples of the Hesperides (hes-pĕr′ĭ-dēz).

This wonderful fruit was somewhere far away in the west, hanging on a tree in the midst of a beautiful garden, and the tree was guarded day and night by a dragon. In his long search the hero met with many adventures. The god of the sea directed him to Prometheus, in the Caucasus Mountains. Prometheus was being punished for having taught the human race to use fire (sec. 6). He was bound to a mighty rock with an adamantine chain, and a vulture fed daily on his liver, which grew again every night. Here Prometheus had suffered for ages when the hero found him. Hercules slew the vulture and broke the chain. Prometheus then in gratitude told Hercules where to find the apples — far away in Africa, in the Garden of the Hesperides. Thither went Hercules, and with the aid of Atlas, who bore the heavens on his shoulders, obtained the coveted prize and bore it back triumphantly to the land of Greece.



HERCULES SLAYING THE NEMEAN LION

An early Greek vase painting. At the left are shown the nymph or local goddess Nemea, and Jolaus, the brother and companion of Hercules, holding the hero's club; at the right, the goddess Minerva and the god Mercury, watching the combat.

57. Jason and the Golden Fleece. — Another of the world-famous stories of prehistoric Greece is the tale of the Argonau'tic Expedition. Ja'son was the son of a king in Thessaly whose brother had deposed him and driven him from the land. When Jason grew to manhood he went to the court of the reigning king, his uncle, who pretended to receive him kindly and invited him to a banquet. As the bards and musicians were reciting the brave deeds of the olden time they included the story of the golden fleece.

Phryxus and his sister Hel'le, they said, had been presented by the god of the sea with a winged, golden-fleeced ram that they might fly to Colchis (kŏl'kĭs) across the Black Sea, to escape the cruelties of a stepmother. As they were flying above a strait on their way Helle became dizzy and fell into the water and was drowned The strait was afterward called the Hel'lespont after her name. Phryxus continued his flight and reached Colchis in safety. Out of gratitude he then sacrificed the ram to the god who had given it to him, and hanging the golden fleece on a tree, placed a dragon to guard it day and night.

Jason was moved by this story, and his wily uncle, the king, remarked that while such a treasure should be brought back to Greece, there was no one to send for it, as the young men of that generation were not brave like those of olden times. The craft of the king had its effect. Jason sprang to his feet and declared that he would go for the golden fleece. The king was highly pleased, for he believed that his nephew would never return.

With about fifty companions, some of them renowned men of Greece, Jason set out in the ship *Argo*. The expedition was therefore called the Argonautic Expedition. Jason succeeded in bringing back the golden fleece to his native land.

This story is supposed to symbolize the beginnings of Greek commerce with the Orient, and the golden fleece was the rich treasures brought from the valley of the Euphrates.

58. The Trojan War (about 1100 B.C.). — The stories of the demigods and heroes above related, and hundreds of others, were pure fable. But modern research has established the fact of a Trojan War, though there is a great deal of fable mixed with the story.

Troy was a city across the Ægean Sea on the coast of Asia Minor, near the entrance of the Hellespont. According to the story of this world-renowned war, Priam was the king of Troy. He had a son named Paris. The king of Sparta was Menela′us, whose wife Helen was the most beautiful woman of her time.

On making a visit to Sparta, Paris was attracted by the charms of Queen Helen, and induced her, in the absence of her husband, to fly with him to Troy. Menelaus, on his return, finding what his guest had done, swore vengeance on the house and city of Priam. He called together the kings and heroes of Greece, and they built a great fleet of more than a thousand ships.

Among the celebrated heroes of this war were Agamem′non, brother of Menelaus and leader of the expedition; Nestor, the wise counselor; Ulys′ses or Odysseus (o-dĭs′ūs), the crafty; Ajax, a man with the courage and strength of a giant; and above all, Achilles (a-kĭl′ēz), the most renowned of all the Greek warriors. For nine years the Greeks besieged the city without success.

The Greeks finally captured Troy by means of a trick. They made a great wooden horse and, leaving it before the walls of the city, pretended to sail away. Within the horse were concealed a hundred Greek warriors. The Trojans drew the horse within the walls, and at night the Greeks emerged, opened the city gates, and admitted the Greek army. The city was soon destroyed and the long war was over. The last part of this war is described in Homer's *Il′iad*, the greatest epic poem in the Greek language.

III. GREEK RELIGION

59. Dwelling Place of the Gods. — The Greeks, like all other peoples, ancient or modern, were religious. Religion has been an important factor in the building up of all civilizations. Where man has not the true religion he will build up a fanciful one from his imagination. He will create gods and goddesses from his own mind and endow them with immortality and superhuman powers. Connected with such a religion is a system of myths, or stories about the gods and legendary heroes. The mythology of the Greeks is elaborate, beautiful, and attractive.

Mt. Olympus in northern Greece, rising grandly from the Thessa′lian plain, was the dwelling place of the gods. Here among the clouds, far from the haunts of men, they sipped the nectar and ate the celestial ambrosia. Here they gathered in grave council, discussed the affairs of men, and determined the destinies of the nations, often disputing and quarreling with one another. The Greek gods were immortal. They could not die, but they were subject to suffering and they had the passions and shortcomings of men.

The stories of the gods, attractive in themselves, are still more attractive when one remembers that they symbolize phenomena in nature.[1]

60. The Great Gods. — The greatest of the gods, the father of gods and men and the king of heaven, was Zeus or Jupiter (the Roman name). It was he who hurled the thunderbolt and sent the forked lightning. He was represented as a man of gigantic size with curling hair and beard. Homer tells us that the movement of his eyebrows would shake Olympus to its base. The Greeks made many statues of this deity; the most celebrated was the colossal figure by Phid′ias at Olympia.

Jupiter divided the control of the universe with his brothers Neptune and Pluto.[2] Neptune, or Greek Poseidon (po-sī′don) became the god of the sea. He dwelt in the caverns of the mighty deep and he could cause earthquakes and storms at his will. He was also god of lakes, rivers, and fountains, which he intrusted to the care of servants, hoary river gods or youths and maidens who lived beneath the waters, invisible to human eyes. Pluto was the

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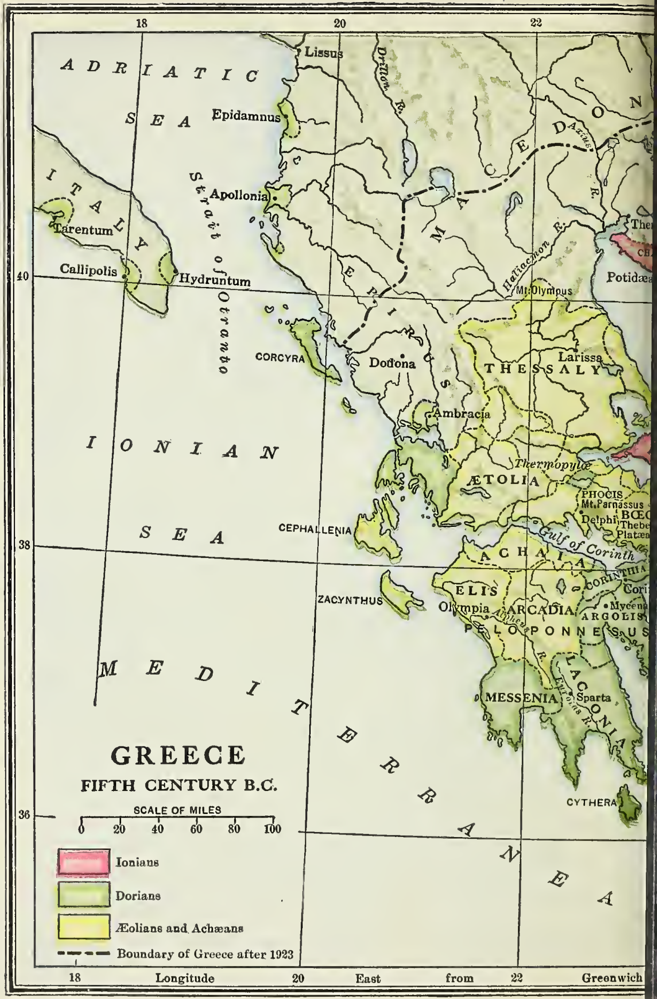
[1] Many of these stories with their allegorical meaning can be found in Guerber's *Myths of Greece and Rome.*

[2] The Roman names are used because better known to English readers.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Æolians and Achæans
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Longitude
East
from
Greenwich
ADRIATIC SEA
ITALY
Tarentum
Callipolis
Hydruntum
Strait of Otranto
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MEDITERRANEAN
Lissus
Epidamnus
Apollonia
Drilon R.
MACEDON
Axius R.
Haliacmon R.
Mt. Olympus
Potidæa
EPIRUS
Dodona
Ambracia
CORCYRA
THESSALY
Larissa
Thermopylæ
ÆTOLIA
PHOCIS
Mt. Parnassus
Delphi
Thebes
Platæa
Gulf of Corinth
ACHAIA
CORINTHIA
Corinth
CEPHALLENIA
ZACYNTHUS
ELIS
Olympia
Alpheus R.
ARCADIA
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MESSENIA
LACONIA
Sparta
Eurotas R.
CYTHERA

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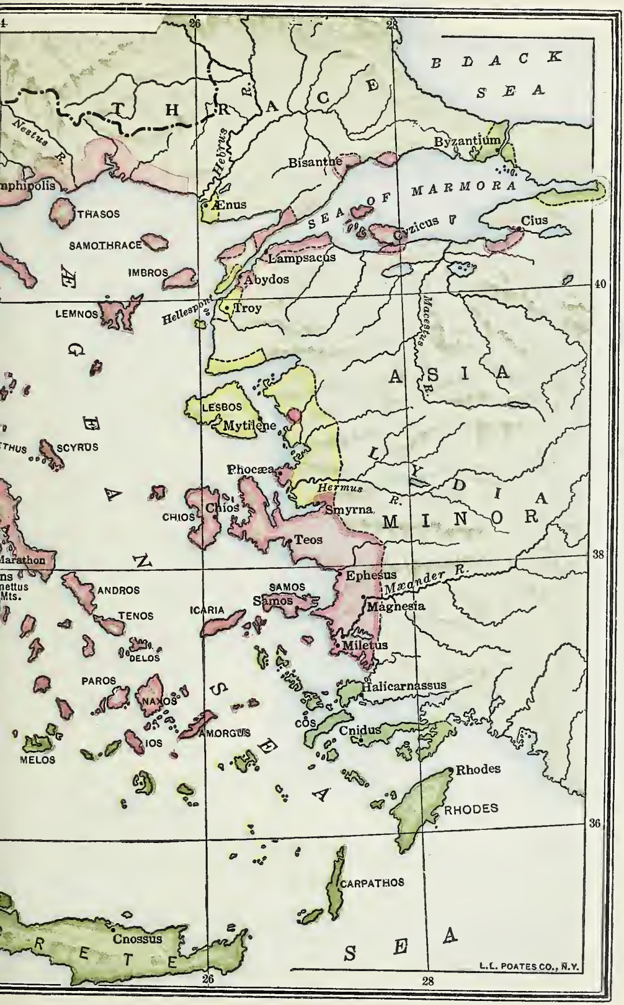
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Hellespont
Troy
Macestus R.
ASIA
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Mytilene
THUS
SCYRUS
LYDIA
Phocæa
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Halicarnassus
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36
CARPATHOS
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god of the lower regions, called Hades (hā′dēz), the abode of the dead.

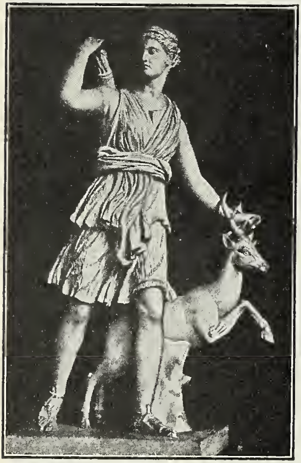
Ceres (sē′rēz; Greek Deme′ter) was the goddess of agriculture and civilization, and her daughter Proser′pina was the goddess of vegetation. Proserpina became the wife of Pluto; but when she left the earth for the dismal regions below all vegetation died. Then all the people of the world prayed to Jupiter that she might return. He agreed that she should spend half of each year on the earth and the other half with her husband. While she is in the underworld the earth is wrapped in snow and ice, and when she returns the earth is blessed with grain and fruit and flowers. And thus goes on forever the changing of the seasons, the succession of winter and summer.

Neptune

A colossal marble statue found in Me′los and now in the National Museum at Athens. The trident in his right hand is the emblem of the sea god.

61. Other Gods. — There were many hundreds of Greek gods and goddesses, only a few of whom can be named here. Apollo, known by the Greeks as Phœbus or He′lios, represented the sun and was the most glorious of all the gods. He was also the god of music, of medicine, of poetry, and of the fine arts. Every day Apollo drove across the sky behind his fiery steeds, guiding the sun in its course.

Dian′a (called also Cyn′thia, Phœ′be, or Ar′temis) was the goddess of the moon and was Apollo's twin sister. At evening when the sun went down Diana drove her milk-white steeds across the sky. She was also the goddess of the chase and is pictured as a robust maiden in a hunting skirt and bearing bow and quiver. The temple of Diana at Eph′esus was one of the Seven Wonders of the ancient World.[1]



Diana of Versailles

A marble statue now in the Louvre.

Venus (Greek Aphrodi′te) was the goddess of love and beauty and marriage. One story of her origin was that she had sprung from the foam of the sea, where she was cradled by the ocean nymphs in a great blue wave and later wafted to shore by Zeph′yrus, the god of the west wind. Venus had a little son called Cupid, a beautiful boy, plump and rosy, with gauzy wings and always bearing a bow and arrow.

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[1] The other six were the pyramids of Egypt (sec. 24), the walls and hanging gardens of Babylon (sec. 33), the statue of Zeus by Phidias (sec. 60), a great Mausole′um at Halicarnassus, a great statue or Colossus at Rhodes, and the Pharos or lighthouse at Alexandria. The Mausoleum was the tomb of King Mauso′lus (died 353 B.C.), built by his widow; the name was afterward given to any magnificent tomb. The Colossus of Rhodes was a bronze statue of the sun-god Apollo, over 100 feet high, erected B.C. 292–280. The Pharos was an elaborate tower of white marble built 270 B.C. at a cost equal to about a million dollars. Of all the Seven Wonders, only the pyramids have endured to modern times.

The god of war was Mars, the Greek Ares (ā'rēz). He was represented as a powerful athlete in shining armor with spear and helmet. He delighted in the noise and din of battle.

Minerva (Greek Athe'na) was the most popular goddess in Greece. She had brought the olive tree to Greece, and her name was given to Athens. She was the goddess of wisdom, and even Jupiter and Mars often heeded her wise counsel.

IV. PANHELLENIC INTERESTS [1]

62. The Delphian Oracle. — The various Greek nations, as we have noticed, though never a united people, professed a common descent, spoke the same language, and worshiped the same gods. There were also other ties which bound them together. One of these was the oracle at Delphi.

Delphi was a little city of Phocis in Central Greece, on the southern slope of Mt. Parnas'sus. Here was built about the sixth century B.C. an imposing temple to Apollo, who had become the advising deity of the Greek people. Here was the shrine of Apollo with its famous oracle, which rendered this spot the most popular religious center in all Greece. From a deep fissure in a great rock under a shaggy cliff of Parnassus came a strange odor, supposed to be the breath of Apollo. The priestess inhaling this odor would utter messages from the god. These, if they dealt with the future, were generally obscure or ambiguous and admitted of various interpretations (Side Talk, page 58). For many hundreds of years the Greeks believed in the divine origin of these prophecies. Seldom would they embark on any important expedition without first consulting the oracle of Delphi. There were several other oracles in Greece, but none of them approached that of Delphi in importance.

63. The Olympian Games. — The Greeks loved sports, and there were four places in which they gathered for great national games. One of these, Olympia, is known to all readers of Greek history. The others are scarcely remembered. Olympia was in Elis, the western part of the Peloponnesus, and the playground was under the shadow of a lofty wooded hill called Mt. Cronus, near the bank of the Alpheus River, the same that Hercules had turned through the Augean stables.

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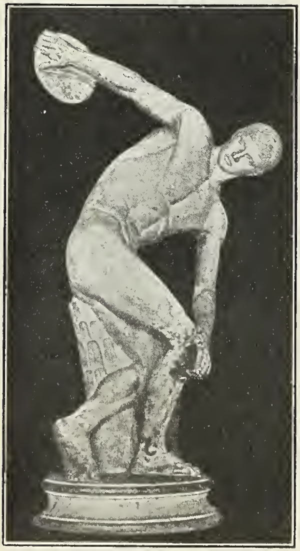
[1] By Panhellen'ic is meant that which pertains to all Hellas. *Pan* is the Greek word for all.

Once in four years, a few weeks after midsummer, great numbers of Greeks from all parts of the land, from the shores of the Mediterranean and the islands of the sea, gathered for this festival. It was a religious festival, held in honor of Zeus, the chief of the gods. The main feature was the physical contests, running, jumping, casting the javelin and the discus, wrestling, boxing, and in the later period, horse racing and chariot racing. Only young men of good morals and sound bodies were permitted to enter the contests. The prize for victory was only a crown of wild olive leaves, but it was a badge of honor as well as of skill and was highly prized. A victor was lavishly entertained, and his journey homeward was like a triumphal procession.



"Discob′olus" of Myron

Marble copy of a famous bronze statue made by the Greek sculptor Myron. "Discobolus" means "discus thrower."

In addition to the physical contests there were many other expressions of gladness at Olympia. Here came the artist with his pictures and the poet to recite his verses. The days flitted by with dance and song, and when the people returned to their homes their feeling of brotherhood was greatly strengthened.

It is not known when these Olympian festivals began, but the first recorded was in 776 B.C. From this date the Greeks reckoned time as we reckon it from the birth of Christ.[1]

Questions and Topics. — I. Describe the soil and climate of Greece. Tell what you know about the Minoan civilization. What traditions had the Greeks of their own origin? What was their state of civilization when they first came to Greece? In what respect was Greek life affected by their learning to till the soil? In which of the five stages of economic progress were the Greeks when they came from the north (sec. 4)? What were the basal causes of the high standard of civilization later built up by the Greeks? What did the Phœnicians do for Greek progress? What would be the state of our civilization without an alphabet? Name and point out on the map the most important divisions of Greece. Why were the Greeks never a united people?

II. What importance can we attach to the Grecian myths? Why are the founders of our early American colonies historical and not mythical characters? What does the story of Jason and the Golden Fleece symbolize in Greek history? Write a short account of the Trojan War.

III. What effect had religion and mythology on Greek civilization? Why are all peoples in history religious? Name a few of the Greek gods and what they stood for.

IV. Describe the oracle of Delphi; the Olympian games. What were the advantages of the Olympian games? How did the Greeks reckon time? What was the purpose in reviving the Olympian contests in recent times?

For Further Reading. — Bury, *History of Greece.* Botsford, *History of Greece.* Richardson, *Vacation Days in Greece.* Mahaffy, *Rambles and Studies in Greece.* Morey, *Outlines of Greek History.* Any good book on Greek mythology. Selections from Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey.*

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[1] The modern revival of the Olympian games began in 1896. In that year they were held in Athens, Greece, the contestants coming from almost every part of the civilized world. In 1900 the meeting place was Paris; in 1904 it was St. Louis, Missouri; in 1908, London; and in 1912, Stockholm, Sweden. In 1916, during the World War, the games were not held; for 1920, Antwerp, Belgium, was selected as the meeting place; for 1924, Paris, France; for 1928, Amsterdam, Netherlands; for 1932, Los Angeles, California.

CHAPTER V

SPARTA AND ATHENS; GREEK COLONIZATION

I. Sparta

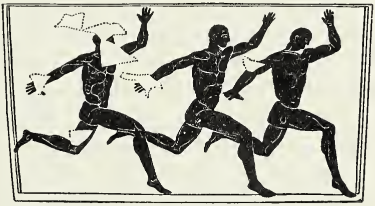
64. The Three Classes. — Any one who has a strong, athletic body and who can suffer hardships without complaining, is often called a " Spartan." The word has come down to us from ancient Greece and from the most renowned people of Greece except the Athe'nians, to be noticed later. The mythical founder of Sparta was Lacedæ'mon, whose wife's name was Sparta. The town was known by both names. Sparta, or Lacedæmon, was a small city on the banks of the little river Euro'tas, which winds among the mountains of Laconia. Here and there along the river lies a green valley, and in one of these valleys, about eighteen miles long and four or five miles wide, was Sparta. The people of this famous little city and of the surrounding country were divided into three classes:

1. *The Spartans* proper, who had complete control of the government. The Spartans capable of bearing arms numbered only about 6000 at any one time.

2. *The Periœ'ci* (those who live around), the middle class. They occupied a hundred villages scattered among the mountains. They were merchants, manufacturers, and sailors, and were subject to the Spartans, to whom they paid heavy tribute.

3. *The Hel'ots*, a class of serfs. They tilled the soil and their Spartan masters took almost all of their crops. The Helots outnumbered the Spartans ten to one but were not permitted to keep arms and were powerless against their cruel masters. On several occasions the Helots and Periœci rose against the Spartans, but were always put down and cruelly punished for their rebellion.

65. The Spartan Warrior. — The Spartan was a soldier and only a soldier. His Helots and his slaves earned his bread and did all his work. The state claimed all his time; when not at war he drilled and prepared for war. He exercised himself by running, leaping, throwing the javelin, and wielding his arms. Every day he exercised all his muscles. The Spartans sought physical perfection and attained it as no other people ever did. The Spartan remained in training to the age of sixty, and he could not leave his country without permission from the state. One way Sparta had of keeping its people at home was to make money of iron. The coins were so large and heavy that no one could afford to travel.



Foot Race

From a Grecian vase painting. The figures are painted in black on a red ground.

The Spartans were taught never to turn their backs to the enemy in battle. They spoke in the most terse, direct manner, and to this day we speak of direct, short sentences as "laconic," from Laconia, the land of which Sparta was the capital. Every Spartan citizen had a wife (the law forced him to marry), but he did not live at home. He ate and slept with his comrades, visiting his family only occasionally. The women were free to do as they liked in managing the household.

When the Spartans went into battle, they formed themselves into a solid mass called a phalanx. They stood shoulder to shoulder in lines eight deep or more. The king would sacrifice a goat and begin to sing a war song. The soldiers would then join in singing, the flute player would begin his piping, and the mass of men, keeping step with the music, would rush fiercely upon the enemy. Every soldier had been trained from childhood and every one was an athlete. Seldom were the Spartans defeated in battle.

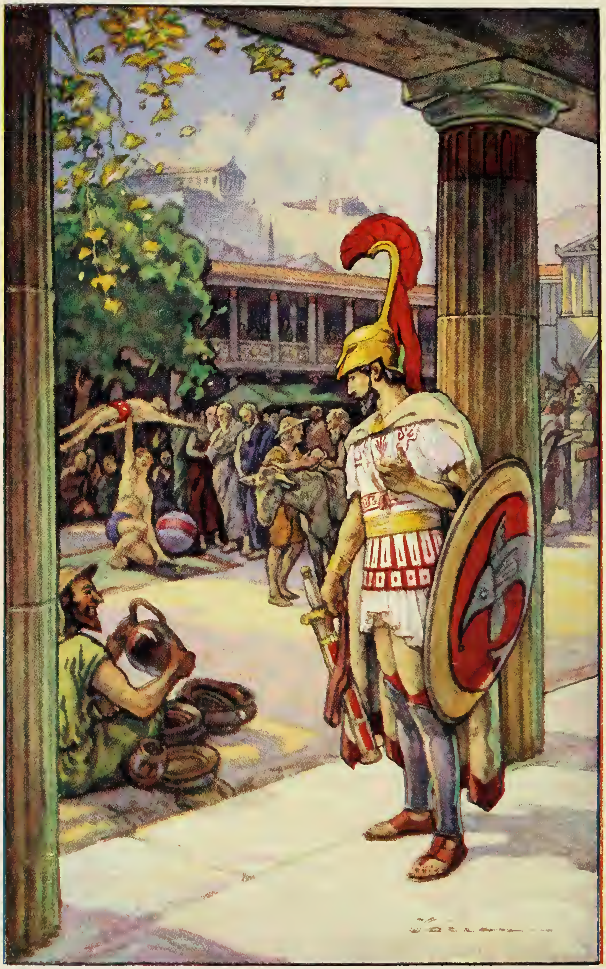
66. **The Spartan Boy and Girl.** — When a child was born in Sparta it was taken before a council of old men. If they found it imperfect in body it was exposed in a mountain glen to die. If found perfect, it was given back to its mother, who kept it till it was seven years of age.

At the age of seven a boy was taken from his mother and put, along with other boys, under the training of an army officer. Here they were drilled in everything that would make them hardy warriors. They went barefoot winter and summer, bathed in the cold Eurotas, and slept on reeds gathered from the river bank. Sometimes they were scourged that they might become accustomed to enduring pain, and a true Spartan lad would die under the lash rather than reveal his suffering by word or look.

All this hard training was for the purpose of making the most efficient soldiers. As a soldier was sometimes obliged to forage, the Spartan boy was taught to steal. If caught he was punished, not for stealing, but for being so stupid as to be caught. The story is well known of the Spartan boy who had stolen a young fox which he concealed under his cloak: the animal gnawed out his vitals, but the boy did not betray himself by look or groan.

Spartan girls also were taken from their homes and trained by the state. They practiced running, throwing the javelin and the discus, and they became strong and robust. A poet says that Spartan girls at play were " like colts with flowing manes making the dust fly about them."

The excessive physical training made Sparta for a long time the strongest military power in Greece. It fostered a spirit of patriotism which became the strongest passion among the people. This is illustrated by the story of the mother who hastened to ask the soldiers returning from a campaign what was the result of the battle. She was informed that all her five sons had perished. " This is not what I wish to know," she exclaimed; " did Sparta win?" " Yes." " Then let us give thanks to the gods."



In the Agora or Market Place, Athens

II. Life in Athens

67. Attica and its Capital. — Attica is a small triangular peninsula of Central Greece jutting southeastward into the Ægean Sea. The land is rugged and mountainous, the soil is stony and thin. In the northeast, overlooking the famous battleground of Mar′athon, rises Mt. Pentel′icus, noted for its white marble. Not far from this mountain on the south is the Hymet′tus range, which was known far and near for its honeybees.

Among the hills and over the narrow plains of Attica were scattered many villages, one of which grew into a notable city, the most renowned for art and culture in all the ancient world. The mythical founder of the city was Cecrops (sec. 54), but the people, believing that the goddess Athena had brought them the olive tree, which flourished in Attica, called the city Athens in her honor. All that was best in Greek civilization centered in this wonderful city. On a massive, barren rock a few miles from the sea, the old town of Athens was built. Later this rock was called the Acrop′olis (citadel) and the great majority of the people dwelt on the surrounding plain.[1]

68. Rise of Democracy. — We are justly proud of our great democracy the United States. The word democracy is from two Greek words (*demos*, people, and *kratos*, power), and means government by the people. We are indebted for the principles of democracy to the ancient Hebrews (sec. 42) and the Greeks, especially the Athenians.

At first and probably for many centuries Athens was a kingdom; but we know little about this period, for the Greeks had not yet learned to write their own history, and most of their legends of the kings are no doubt myths. About the beginning of the historic period (750 B.C.) the ruling officials came to be called archons (ar′kŏnz). The word *archon* means ruler, and from it we get our words monarch, patriarch, and the like. The archons were all nobles and their government of the peasants was harsh and tyrannical. The common people of Athens chafed under the oppressive rule of the nobles. Those who were rich enough to afford armor had been admitted into the phalanx for warfare and soon they demanded a share in the government also. This in time was granted. An assembly called the Eccle′sia was formed and every soldier who was rich enough to equip himself in armor was a member of it. This assembly came to have a great deal of power in the government.

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[1] The agora, pictured on the opposite page, was a public square in Athens planted here and there with plane trees, and surrounded by temples, shops, and covered porticoes. In these covered promenades, whose inner walls were decorated with vivid frescoes, met the leading men of the city to discuss the news of the day. Hucksters selling food and various small wares squatted on the pavement or sat in little booths, adding their cries to the continuous din. Interested spectators and idlers watched the mountebanks perform. Save for a few tradeswomen, no Athenian lady was to be seen; but with the citizens in their flowing robes mingled visitors and soldiery.

The poorer people had no part in the government and they were discontented. One cause of their discontent lay in the fact that the laws were not written and those in authority could twist and interpret them as they chose.

A landlord would lay claim to a field whether he had a right to it or not. He would set up a boundary stone as a sign that the land and all the people on it belonged to him. The people were forced to pay him rent and often they were unable to do so. The ground was poor and they had nothing but sharpened sticks with which to till the soil. When they failed to pay they were sold into slavery by their cruel master.

69. **Solon, the Lawgiver.** — A lawgiver was certainly needed and one soon arose. His name was Solon. He was the greatest lawgiver Greece ever produced, and one of the most renowned in history.

Solon was chosen archon in the year 594 B.C. and was intrusted with making over the laws of the country. Though himself a rich man, he was a friend of the poor, and one of the first things he did was to order the boundary stones in Attica to be removed and all those who had been sold into slavery for debt to be released.

Some of the most important of Solon's reforms are the following:

1. The sale of one's children or kinswomen into slavery was forbidden.
2. Peasants were made proprietors of the lands they cultivated, and a limit was set on the amount of land any one could hold.
3. The citizens were grouped into four classes according to their incomes, and even the lowest class was given a voice in the government.
4. Every father was obliged to teach his son a trade.

It was Solon who laid the foundations of true democracy in Athens. After doing his great work he left Athens and traveled in foreign lands for ten years (Side Talk, page 58). His laws were not fully enforced, but the Athenians never forgot their great lawgiver, and indeed his influence has been felt throughout all the ages down to our own times.

70. How the Assembly and Courts Worked. — Solon had admitted the lower classes to the assembly, and it was now composed of all male citizens over twenty years of age. Thus Athens was a pure democracy. The assembly met two or three times a month, but of course not all the members attended. The meetings were held in the open air, the members sitting on stone benches in the form of an amphitheater. After a brief religious service a herald would proclaim the business in a loud voice and then cry, "Who wishes to speak?" The members who desired to speak then mounted the platform and addressed their fellows. When all had finished a vote was taken by a show of hands.

From among the members of the assembly above thirty years old several thousand men were chosen by lot for service as judges or jurymen. Each jury was large — perhaps 201 or 501 men, but sometimes more than 1000. There was no public prosecutor. Any citizen might accuse any other citizen. Both the accuser and the accused would speak to the jury, the time of each being marked by a water clock. In voting each juryman deposited a white or a black stone. If the accuser did not receive a certain number of votes, he was himself condemned. When two men went to law each had the right to call the slaves of the other as witnesses, and the slaves were put to the torture in order to force them to tell what they knew.

71. **Daily Life of the Athenians.** — We have noticed that in Sparta the men and children above seven years of age belonged to the state and did not spend much time in their homes, while the women kept the home and enjoyed the fullest freedom.

In Athens the men enjoyed more freedom and the women less than in Sparta. The men lived in public. Their business was warfare and government, and their living was earned by the labor of slaves and of the poorer classes. They lived out of doors, often sleeping in the streets at night. During the day they could be found in the market place, at the gymnasium, in the army, or in the courts. They loved poetry and song, and often they gathered about some aspiring poet and listened to his verses, or to the great epics of Homer, which were passed down unwritten from generation to generation for hundreds of years.

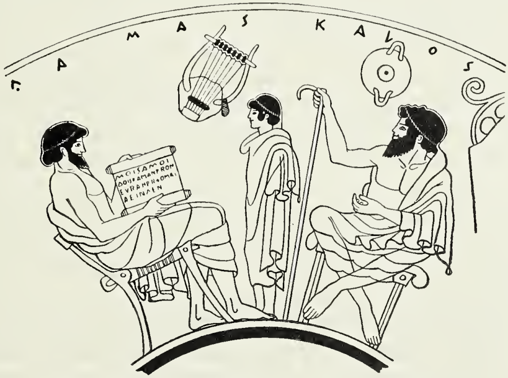
In later ages, when the works of the great authors were written, a studious man would spend much of his time in reading. Athens at one time was the greatest book center in the world and there was a section in the public market place where books were sold. A book was a rolled scroll of papyrus, written by hand. Some books were very large, the scroll being 150 feet or more in length. Such a book was very much more expensive than our books because of the great labor required in making it. A reader would unroll the sheet at one end as he rolled it up at the other end.

72. **Women and Children.** — The well-to-do Athenian women were confined closely to their homes, where they directed their slaves and looked after the household. The women had no place in society; they received no visitors except their husbands and relatives. When guests were present for meals the women did not appear at the table.

The women of poor families went to the public well for water or to the market place to make purchases, and in this way met their neighbors for a little chat. Other women sent their slaves on such errands and themselves remained in their homes. The poor women thus had more freedom than the rich.

When a child was born in Sparta a committee of old men decided whether it should live or not (sec. 66). In Athens it was the father of the little newcomer who decided whether to reject it or keep it. If he chose not to keep the child, it was exposed outside the house, where it died of hunger and neglect, unless some passer-by took it and raised it as a slave. Girls were more frequently rejected than boys. The rejection of an infant was far more frequent in Sparta than in Athens.

73. The Boy and the Young Man. — If the child was accepted it was left in the care of its mother. A boy when seven years old was placed under the care of a ped'agogue, who was usually a slave. He taught the boy to obey and to cultivate good manners and had the right to beat him if necessary. Later the boy attended school and learned not many things, but a few things well. The pedagogue accompanied the boy to school and waited to return with him when the lessons were over. Athens had no



Greek School Teacher, Pupil, and Pedagogue

From an ancient Greek vase painting. The teacher is instructing the pupil from a parchment roll. Between them, hanging on the wall, is shown a lyre.

public schools. A teacher organized his own school and lived by the fees of his pupils. Most schools were in comfortable rooms, but some teachers sat and conducted their classes in the streets. The schoolroom had little furniture, perhaps only a stool for the teacher, a few benches for the boys, and statues of Apollo and the Muses — nine goddesses of song, poetry, arts, and sciences.

The boy was taught reading, writing, grammar, and arithmetic. He was also taught to recite poetry, to sing in the chorus, and perhaps to play the flute and the lyre. Lastly, the Athenian boy attended the gymnasium, or perhaps a wrestling school where he was carefully drilled in bodily exercise. While in Sparta the sole object was to make good soldiers, in Athens the object was to make men well-rounded in both mind and body. We must admire the Athenian method more than the Spartan.

The boy finished school usually before he was twenty, when he became a citizen. He could now come and go as he liked, except that he was expected to serve a few years in the army. If his country was not at war, this was not a very arduous task, nor did it take him far from home

A young man of means sufficient to enable him to live a life of leisure found much to entertain him. He would spend his days in contests with his fellows throwing the discus and the javelin, or in the more severe exercise of wrestling or boxing; or he would stroll about the Academy or Lyce′um, two noted places of amusement in Athens. Here he could witness or take part in many games, could dance to the music of the flute and the lyre, or, if more serious-minded, he could listen to the philosophers who often came to these resorts to expound their theories of life.

Sometimes the young man would go with his companions on an extensive hunting tour far into the mountains and forests of Central Greece. Armed with a sling and a spear or javelin, wearing hat and boots (things not used in ordinary life), accompanied by a fierce Arcadian mountain dog or a Laconian foxhound, he would spend days or even weeks in the sport of the chase.

74. Marriage. — The Athenian girl was kept in ignorance. She never attended school nor learned to read. Until the age of fifteen she remained in strict seclusion at home with her mother, aiding her in keeping the household and spinning flax.

At the age of fifteen the girl was married. Most marriages took place in the winter months in the light of the moon. The father of a girl chose a husband for her without consulting her in the matter. It often happened that the young girl was married to a man whom she had never seen before the wedding day. Herodotus tells of one man who, having several daughters, permitted them to choose husbands for themselves, and he mentions it as a very unusual occurrence.

The marriage festival was similar in many ways to that of Babylonia (sec. 37). It is possible that some of the customs were borrowed from the Orient. After a day of gay festivities with friends of both families, the bridegroom took his bride in a chariot drawn by oxen or horses and proceeded to his home. They were followed by a noisy crowd on foot playing flutes and harps and singing songs. The crowd grew larger as the procession moved through the streets. In this procession the mother of the bride had a place of honor. She bore a torch lighted from the sacred fire of her own hearth.

A Greek married because the law and his religion required him to do so. He did not make his wife a companion; she was only his home-keeper and the mother of his children. The man was educated and well informed on all subjects; the woman was ignorant and not companionable. One writer speaks of marriage as a necessary evil. With all our admiration for the ancient Greeks, we must agree that in their treatment of women and new-born infants they were barbarians — like other ancient peoples.

75. Progress in Agriculture. — The Attic farmer lacked agricultural machinery. His plow in the earlier times was a forked tree trunk. Later it was made of parts fastened together with pegs and with an iron point. The plow was drawn by mules or oxen, the plowman guiding it by means of a handle.

The harvest time was made a season of festivity. The people indulged in all sorts of fun and frolic as they reaped their grain with sickles, bound it in sheaves, and carried it on their backs or in wooden carts to the threshing floor. The grain was threshed by the tramping of mules, oxen, or horses. It was then separated from the chaff by tossing it to the wind.

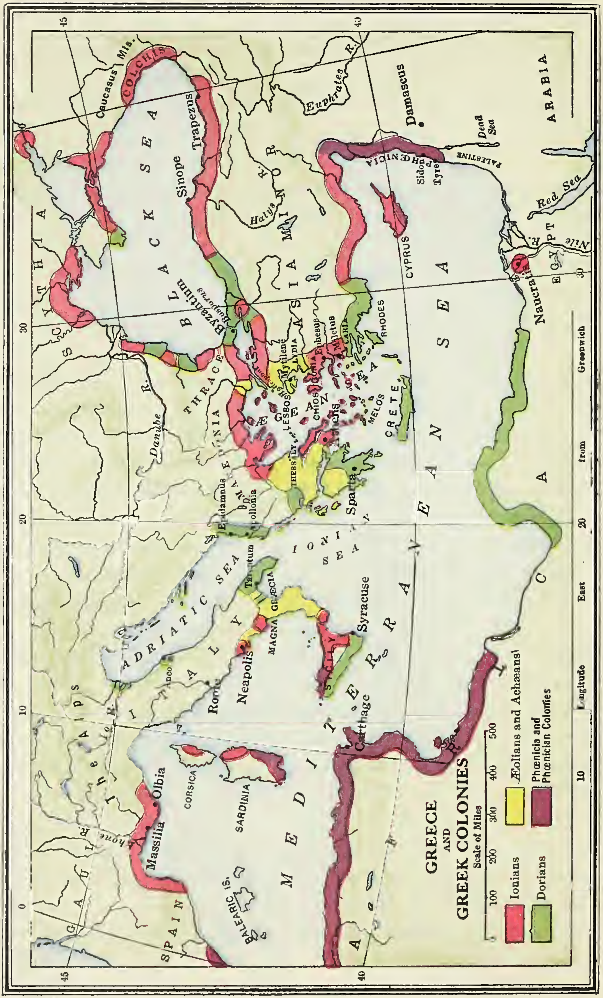
The grain, wheat or barley, was ground between two heavy millstones, the upper one being turned on the lower one (which was immovable) by means of a handle. In the rural districts, however, where grain was used in small quantities, it was usually ground in hand mortars by slaves.

In addition to the raising of grain the Greeks gave much attention to cultivating the vine and the olive and fig trees.

There were many superstitions connected with rural life. One god or goddess watched over the growing grain, another caused the olive tree to bring forth its fruit, while still another had the care of the vine. Almost every movement the farmer made from the sowing of the grain to the gathering of his harvest had its religious meaning and was accompanied with some sort of religious ceremony. If the ground brought forth grain plentifully, it was Demeter that was to be thanked; Diony′sus made the vine to bring forth grapes, and the goddess Athena, the most venerated of all, was ever vigilant in her protection of the precious olive tree.

The food of the Greeks was not very different from that which we find on our own tables — wheat or barley bread, meat occasionally, fish and nuts; but potatoes, tea, coffee, and bananas were unknown to them. The universal drink was wine. Oil and sometimes wine were used for softening bread. The Greeks did not sit at the table as we do; they reclined on couches while taking their meals.

76. Various Industries. — The great factories of our cities, driven by steam or electric power, were undreamed of by the ancients. In all countries man learned by a slow and laborious process to make the things he needed in addition to those which nature furnished ready to hand.


GREECE
AND
GREEK COLONIES
Scale of Miles
100
200
300
400
500
Ionians
Dorians
Æolians and Achæans
Phœnicia and Phœnician Colonies
Longitude East from Greenwich
BLACK SEA
SCYTHIA
Caucasus Mts.
COLCHIS
Sinope
Trapezus
ASIA MINOR
Halys R.
Euphrates R.
Byzantium
Bosporus
Hellespont
THRACE
MACEDONIA
Danube R.
LYDIA
IONIA
CARIA
Mytilene
Ephesus
Miletus
LESBOS
CHIOS
ÆGEAN SEA
MELOS
RHODES
CRETE
CYPRUS
PHOENICIA
Sidon
Tyre
Damascus
PALESTINE
Dead Sea
ARABIA
Red Sea
Nile R.
EGYPT
Naucratis
THESSALY
Athens
Sparta
Epidamnus
Apollonia
IONIAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
ITALY
Ancona
Rome
Neapolis
MAGNA GRÆCIA
Tarentum
SICILY
Syracuse
Carthage
AFRICA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CORSICA
SARDINIA
BALEARIC IS.
SPAIN
GAUL
Alps
Rhone R.
Massilia
Olbia
45
40
30
20
10
0

Facing 89

A stroll through the streets of Athens in the classic period, 400 or 500 B.C., would reveal many a busy workshop. It will be seen that craftsmen of the same craft often occupy the same street: the potters are numerous along one street, the masons and builders along another, while the jewelers predominate in another. The name of the street often designates the business which characterizes it, as the " street of the stonemasons."

In the northwest part of the city we find the street of the potters. Here we see making all manner of vessels of clay, from the cheap and plain kitchen utensils to the highly artistic urns and vases, many of which still exist and are to be found in our museums. We find also the street occupied by the masons and builders. Here various classes of workmen are engaged. The stonecutter shapes and polishes stone or marble blocks; a carpenter frames doors from timbers brought from the Attic forests; while the roofers are preparing tiles.

One street is devoted to the work of the millers and the bakers. The finished loaves and barley cakes, baked in large earthen ovens, are sold to the consumer at the market place or on the streets by regular bread sellers. Here is a street given to the cloth makers, the fullers, and the dyers. The weaving is done on hand looms, worked by men or women. The woven cloth, of wool or flax, after being fulled and dyed, goes to the garment cutters and is made into garments.

The one garment generally worn by men and women is the tunic, called a chiton (kī'ton), a loose flowing robe, without sleeves, fastened about the shoulders with a clasp or button and falling gracefully over the body.

III. GREEK COLONIZATION

77. Swarming Across the Sea. — The Greeks were like a hive of bees. They outgrew their quarters and were obliged to swarm. Greece was not only a small country, it was also unfertile and even barren in many parts. It could not support a great population, and the people naturally cast their eyes across the sea in many directions. There were fertile lands to allure them on the coasts of the Mediterranean and the Black Sea. Many of these places were sparsely peopled, and the enterprising Greeks made use of their opportunity. Not only the Greeks of Greece but also those of western Asia Minor and the Ægean islands became great colonizers.

Greek settlements were made in many lands. The northern coast of the Ægean Sea and the shores of the Black Sea became dotted with the colonies of these enterprising people. They had a settlement in Egypt at the delta of the Nile; they planted colonies in Cy′prus and on the neighboring southern coast of Asia Minor, in northern Africa, in southern Italy, southern France, and even in Spain. Colonizing by the Greeks was most active from the eighth to the sixth century B.C.

78. **How the Greeks Colonized.** — When England colonized America she granted the colonies certain privileges, but did not grant them absolute freedom. Independence came only with the Revolution. The Greek colonies, on the other hand, were independent from the start, though each continued to cherish the friendship of the mother state.

The Greeks did not colonize by going out singly or by families or in small groups. They went out in large numbers. When a colony was to be founded they consulted the oracle at Delphi, and if the answer was favorable they chose a " founder " who was to be their leader. They put to sea in as many vessels (sailboats furnished also with oars) as were required. When they reached the place of settlement the founder traced out an inclosure on which to build a city, constructed a sacred altar, and lighted the holy fire from embers brought from the home city. A city was founded in a single day, and everything was done with solemn religious ceremony.

Many of the Greek colonies came to be of great importance, rivaling the leading cities of Greece. Only a few of these can be mentioned here.

We think of ancient Italy as the dwelling place of the Romans, but in fact there were many Greek towns in southern Italy before the Romans were heard of. So numerous were the Greek settlements that southern Italy was called Great Greece (Magna Græcia). In plain view of the Italian shore lies the island of Sicily, in which also many Greek settlements were made. Among them was the city of Syr'acuse, founded by Corinthians about 732 B.C. Syracuse was surrounded by a wall fourteen miles in length, and it became the mother of various other colonies.

Had all the Greeks been capable of uniting under one government, they might have formed one of the great empires of antiquity.

SIDE TALK

The Legend of Euxenus. — This story was told in connection with the founding of the Greek colony in southern France, where Marseilles now stands: Eux'enus, a citizen of Greece, came to Gaul, as France was then called, in a merchant ship. A Gallic chief invited him to attend the marriage of his daughter, and Euxenus did so. A custom of this people was that the intended bride should choose a husband from among the guests invited to her wedding. She did this by entering the guest chamber bearing a cup, and the guest to whom she presented this cup was to be her husband.

On this occasion the beautiful daughter of the chief entered the chamber, looked over the men, and offered the cup to Euxenus. This unpremeditated act was regarded as an inspiration from heaven. The marriage was celebrated and the chief granted his new son-in-law permission to found the colony of Massilia — the modern Marseilles.

Questions and Topics. — I. Give the location of Sparta. Describe the classes of the people. How did the Spartan training of a warrior differ from modern military training? What can we find to admire in the education of a Spartan boy or girl? What were the defects in it?

II. Describe Attica and locate Athens. What is democracy and the origin of the word? Who is the author of the expression, "making the world safe for democracy," and what is meant by it? Why were the Athenian people anxious for self-government? Who was Solon and what debt do we owe to him? Describe the working of an Athenian assembly. How did an Athenian entertain himself? Compare the treatment of infants in Athens and in Sparta. Which was preferable, the Spartan or the Athenian method of educating children? Why? How did a young Athenian spend his time? Do we think it wise for a young man not to have a regular occupation? Describe a Greek marriage ceremony. Describe the raising and harvesting of grain. What were the religious beliefs in connection with agriculture?

III. Why did the Greeks seek to build colonies? What was the important difference between the plan of Greek colonizing and that of England in colonizing America? Which was the wiser plan? Why? Why did the Greeks never build up an empire? What is an empire (sec. 21)?

For Further Reading. — Westermann, *Story of the Ancient Nations.* Bury, *History of Greece.* Blümner, *Home Life of the Ancient Greeks.* Gulick, *Life of the Ancient Greeks.* Tucker, *Life in Ancient Athens.* Botsford, *Source Book of Ancient History.* Botsford, *History of the Ancient World.* Fling, *Source Book of Greek History.* Morey, *Ancient Peoples.*

CHAPTER VI

THE BRILLIANT AGE—LITERATURE, PHILOSOPHY, FINE ARTS

I. ATHENS IN THE AGE OF PERICLES

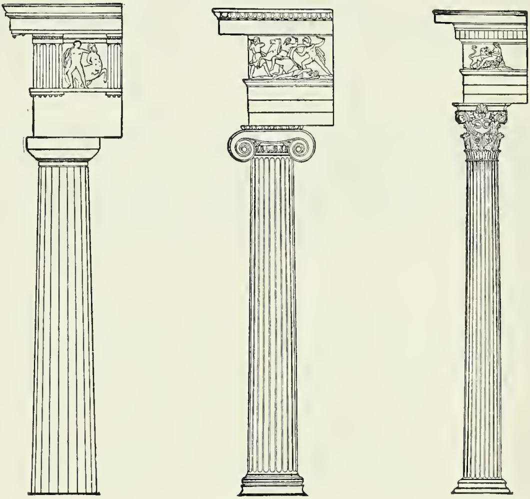
79. The Greatest Greek Statesman. — No people can leave a great name in the world's record except through the leadership of men capable of taking the initiative in various lines of human thought and endeavor. The enduring achievements of Greece were due to its great leaders, a few of whom will be noticed in this chapter.

The greatest of the Greek statesmen was Pericles (pĕr′ĭ-klēz) of Athens. In 480 B.C. Athens passed through a dreadful baptism of blood and fire, during the wars with the Persians described in our next chapter. Pericles on entering public life found a great work to do in rebuilding and adorning the city. Though descended from a noble family, he took the side of the people against the aristocrats and through his transparent sincerity and candor soon won the confidence of all. Pericles was a many-sided man. He was not only a statesman, but he was an able commander who won battles on land and sea; he was the greatest orator of his generation, and when he spoke before the assembly there was no escaping the irresistible charm of his eloquence. Moreover, he was a man of highest honor and integrity, and he gave his talents to his country with unselfish devotion

For forty years, to the time of his death in 429 B.C., Pericles, through his sheer force of character, his surpassing ability, and his magic eloquence, was master of Athens. As Thucydides, the historian of the period, informs us, " The Democracy existed in name; in reality it was the government of the first citizen."

Plutarch says, " He got all of Athens and all affairs pertaining tc the Athenians into his own hands."

Pericles was the chief builder of the Athenian Empire; under his leadership Athens was mistress, for a time, of more than half of Greece. He adorned his city with magnificent buildings, unsurpassed in architectural beauty; he gathered to himself and encouraged the leaders in art, sculpture, philosophy, and literature, and made his city the metropolis of culture. In the matter of


Doric *Ionic* *Corinthian*

ORDERS OF GREEK ARCHITECTURE

The three styles of architecture are distinguished by the form of the columns. The Dor′ic was the oldest and simplest, the column having a simple capital and no distinct base. The more slender Ion′ic column rested on a base, and the capital was adorned with a spiral roll. The Corinthian, latest of all and a modification of the Ionic, had a capital embellished with designs taken from the acanthus leaf. The modern "skyscrapers" may be compared with the plan of the Greek column, the lower stories and the top being decorated and the rest of the building left plain like the shaft of the column.

government, Athens, under the superb leadership of Pericles, reached a high state of efficiency.

80. Great Men of Athens. — Grandly supreme stands the city of Athens in its production of men who achieved immortal fame, and the golden age of Athens was the Age of Pericles. If we enlarge the "Age of Pericles" so as to cover one century beginning with the time when Pericles entered public life (469 B.C.), we have a record so astonishing as almost to surpass belief. No other city can approach anywhere near the record of this wonderful Attic metropolis. In fact it has been asserted and is probably true that in all history there has never been another equal period of time in which the whole world produced as many geniuses of the first rank as Athens produced in the Age of Pericles. Here is a partial list:

If one were to name a half dozen of the most famous historians of the world, in that short list there would be two Athenians of the Age of Pericles — Herodotus, the Father of History, and Thucydides. Among the world's greatest dramatic poets three Athenians of this period must be named. These were Æschylus (ĕs′kĭ-lŭs), Sophocles (sŏf′o-klēz), and Euripides (ū-rĭp′ĭ-dēz).

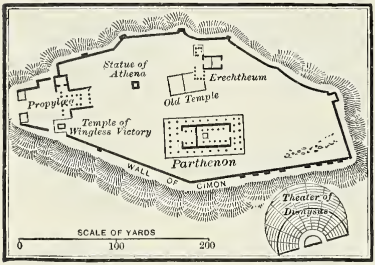
The greatest of the Grecian sculptors, perhaps the greatest of all time, was Phidias, who worked under Pericles in beautifying the temples of the Acropolis. Praxiteles (prăk-sĭt′e-lēz), who ranks next to Phidias, flourished somewhat later, but still within the same century.

In philosophy Greece presents three colossal figures, in Socrates (sŏk′ra-tēz), Pla′to, and Aristotle (ăr′ĭs-tŏt-'l), none of whom has been surpassed in his chosen field during all the ages that have elapsed since that day. The same statement is true of Demosthenes (de-mŏs′the-nēz), who is considered the prince of the world's orators.

All these were men of Athens and all lived within the century we have designated. There are still others among the Athenian immortals of the time. The above-named characters will be noticed more fully in the following pages.

II. GREEK ARCHITECTURE AND SCULPTURE

81. The Acropolis. — In the heart of Athens was a hill or small plateau called the Acropolis or citadel, measuring about 1100 feet in length by 500 feet in width and rising about 150 feet above the plain. On this hill were erected buildings of the greatest architectural beauty produced by the ancient world.[1]



PLAN OF THE ACROPOLIS

Most famous among these was the Par′thenon, a temple to Athena, the virgin goddess after whom the city was named. This temple was erected under the direction of Pericles. It was built of Pentelic marble, in the Doric style of architecture. It was small in comparison with the great temples of Egypt and Babylonia; but in classic taste and exquisite proportions it surpassed them all. The Parthenon was a product of that wonderful outburst of creative genius which characterized the Age of Pericles. The ruined walls of the Parthenon still remain. For two thousand years the building was preserved in an almost perfect state, being used in turn as a pagan temple, a Christian church, and a Mohammedan mosque; but in

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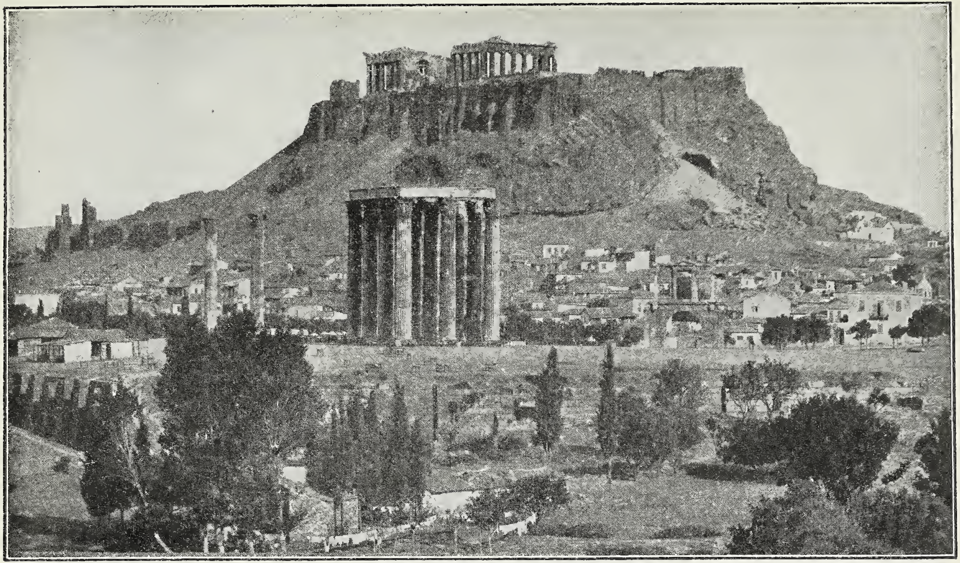
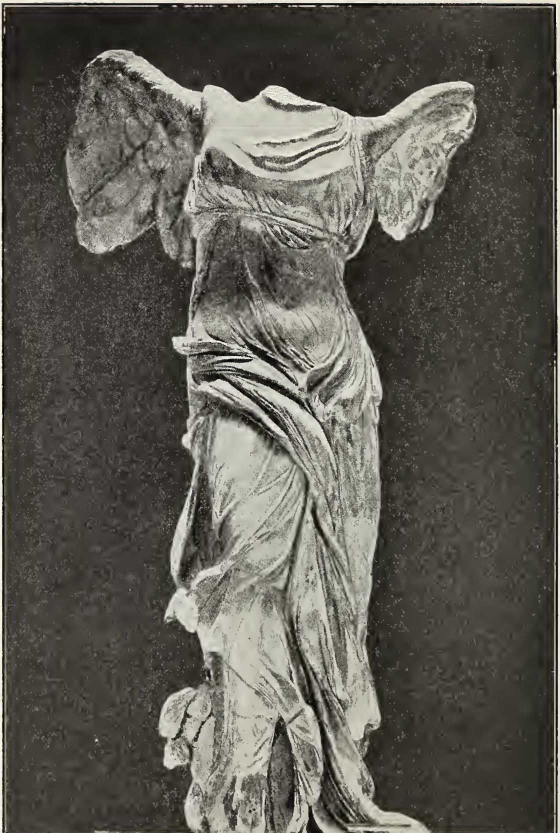
[1] The view of the Acropolis on the opposite page was taken from the plain on the east. Most of the modern Athens is on the west. The ruins of the Parthenon, as they appear to-day, can be seen on the summit. Some of the beautiful marble bas-reliefs and other sculptures that served as decorations for the temple were transported to the British Museum by Lord Elgin in 1801, and have thus been preserved.

The group of columns on the plain near the center of the picture are the ruins of a temple to Zeus, built between 174 and 164 B.C. It was entirely of marble, and had 104 Corinthian columns more than 50 feet high. Of these, 48 stood in triple rows, with 56 in double rows at the sides.



The Acropolis of Athens



The Nike or Winged Victory of Samothrace

1687, when used as a Turkish powder magazine, it was partly blown to pieces during a bombardment by the Venetians.

The city of Athens was adorned with many other artistic temples and monuments and statues, and the same was true of other Grecian cities.[1] The houses in which the people lived, when they lived in houses at all (much of the time was spent in the open air), were low and small and packed together on the winding, ill-paved streets. The Egyptians, as we have noticed (sec. 23), lived in poor houses in order to build fine stone houses for their mummies. The Greeks, on the other hand, spent their extra money in erecting great temples and monuments in which all the people took a personal pride. No other people in history were as a whole so artistic and so classic in their art as the Athenians. By classic we mean of fine artistic taste, with a true sense of proportion, simplicity, and grace, and a contempt for all that is tawdry and bombastic.

82. The Great Sculptors. — Phidias produced many sculptures, but is especially known as the decorator of the wonderful temple of the Parthenon. Around the walls and cornices were groups of gods and heroes exquisitely wrought in gold and ivory and marble. There were figures of horses and chariots, soldiers, beautiful women, and many other figures together producing in the beholder a sense of beauty and unsurpassed splendor. In the temple, most wonderful of all, was the colossal statue of Athena (Minerva), standing 39 feet in height and made of gold and ivory.

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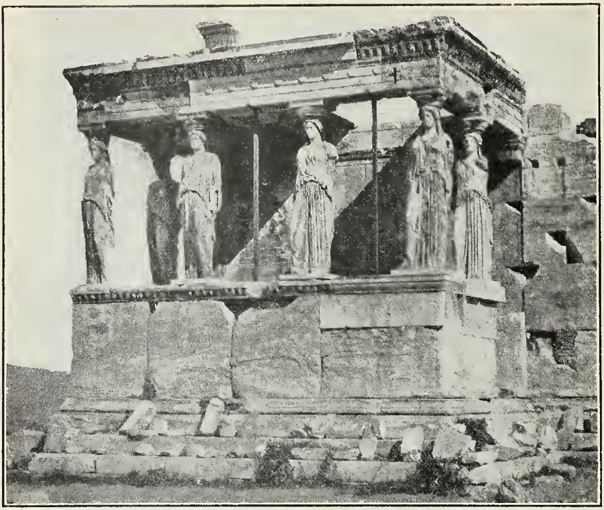
[1] The famous marble statue of Nike (nī'kē), the goddess of victory, shown on the opposite page, was erected on the island of Sam'othrace in the northern part of the Ægean Sea, to commemorate a naval victory in one of the wars between successors of Alexander the Great (sec. 115). She is represented as standing on a pedestal in the form of the prow of a tri'reme, blowing victorious strains on a trumpet which she held in her right hand. The statue found in 1863, and the marble prow discovered later, are now in the Louvre, Paris. R. B. Richardson, in his *History of Greek Sculpture,* says of the Nike: "She is without head or arms, but so grand is her attitude that we hardly miss them. The onward rush which she shares with the rushing trireme makes her one of the finest, one might almost say, the very finest, of all Greek sculptures."



Porch of Maidens Attached to the Erechtheum (ĕr-ek-thē′um)

This building, on the Acropolis (plan, page 96) was, next to the Parthenon, the most important building of the great age of Greek sculpture. The Maidens stand four on the front and one on each end supporting with their heads the top of the portico. This is the best example of using human forms in place of columns.

The masterpiece of Phidias, however, was his colossal sitting statue of Zeus, in the temple of Olympia.

Praxiteles, who ranks second only to this Athenian master, left the world some beautiful pieces of sculpture, most of which have perished. Other great sculptors there were, but some of the best work which has come down to us is by unknown hands. The most famous of the statues by unknown sculptors is the Venus of Milo (mē′lō), which was unearthed in 1820 on the island of Milo or Melos and is now in the Louvre in Paris. Others are shown on pages 73, 74.

Greek sculptures and temples were embellished by the use of bright colors.

III. GREEK LITERATURE

83. Homer. — The greatest of the Greek poets was Homer. He belonged to the early period, perhaps 1000 B.C., though the exact time of his life cannot be determined. His birthplace is unknown and seven different cities contended for the honor. It is said that he was blind. The greatest of the Homeric (ho-mĕr′ik) poems is the *Iliad*, which describes the siege of Troy, and especially the wrath of Achilles (sec. 58).

The *Iliad* is an epic poem of wonderful power and beauty. Various critics have attempted to show that this great poem could not have been the work of one man, but the unity of the poem and the sameness of style throughout seem to indicate that it is the work of a single hand. The whole poem, whether it treats of the most ordinary actions of life, or of the heroic deeds of gods and heroes, is stately and grand and never monotonous.

Another great epic said to have been the work of Homer is the *Od′yssey*, which relates the adventures of Ulysses on his return from the Trojan War.

These poems are said to have been learned and handed down from one generation to another for several hundred years before they were put into written form.

84. Sappho and Pindar. — The two most celebrated lyric poets were Sappho (săf′ō), who flourished in 600 B.C., and Pindar, who was born in 522 B.C. The tastes of the people had changed, and lyric poetry became more popular than the epic. Lyric poetry is that which is suitable for song with the accompaniment of the lyre, — odes, love songs, and the like.

Sappho was born in the city of Mytile′ne on the island of Lesbos. The Greeks esteemed her next to Homer, and though only a few precious fragments of her poetry have been preserved, there is reason to believe that she was the greatest woman poet that ever lived. The marvelous beauty and tenderness of her verse, the exquisite harmony and subtle charm, have never been surpassed.

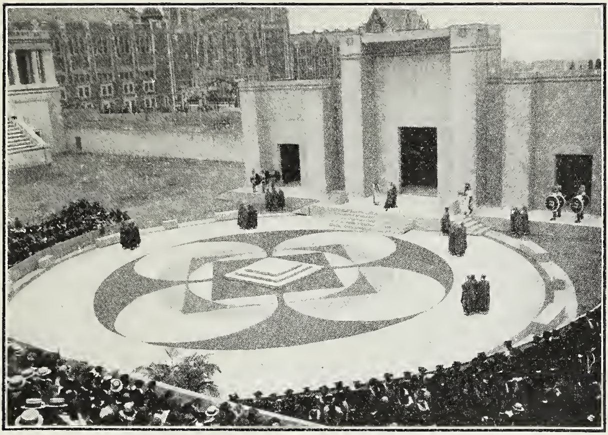
Pindar was a native of Thebes in Bœotia. He lived through the Persian Wars and far into the time of Pericles. His odes were for the most part written in honor of the Olympian games. These games, it must be remembered, had a religious meaning, and the odes of Pindar were pervaded with a deep religious feeling. Like the songs of Sappho, the poems of Pindar are faultless in form. It has been said that his poems show as subtle and as successful an art as is known in literature.

85. **The Theater of Dionysus.** — The Greeks were fond of the theater, and their plays usually had a religious meaning. There was one great theater in Athens, on the eastern slope of the Acropolis, the spacious theater of Dionysus, the wine-god, in whose honor two great festivals were held each year. The auditorium was a vast amphitheater in the open air, seating 30,000 people. The stone seats, rising tier upon tier, faced a central open space called the orchestra, and back of this was the stage.

Here people gathered in great numbers day after day and saw the sat'yrs, clothed in goatskins, singing their goat songs and dancing around the altar dedicated to the god of wine. The dancing group, called the chorus, was composed of young men and boys of the noble families, long trained for this purpose. Later the play on the stage was introduced by Thespis, as tradition informs us, and we still use the word Thespian to designate the drama.

Some of the plays were jovial and were called comedies, from a Greek word meaning a joyful festivity. Others presented the serious and often fatal aspects of life. These were called tragedies from the Greek word *tragos*, a goat, because in the early period a goat was sacrificed in the plays. The first presentation of the dramas of the great poets was usually in this famous theater of Dionysus.

86. **Three Great Dramatists.** — With the Greek drama three great names are always associated — Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides. All of these authors lived in the Age of Pericles, all



Modern Production of a Play of Euripides

The chorus in the old Greek play was a company of singers who both took part in the action and served as interpreters of it to the audience. They are represented in the picture by the groups in dark robes standing in the circular space of the orchestra around the altar. The part of the chorus gradually decreased in importance as the number of actors was increased. The stage or scene was always very simple in structure. The picture is from *The Trojan Women*, as presented in the Stadium at the College of the City of New York in 1915.

were Athenians, and together they raised the dramatic art to a high degree of perfection.

Æschylus (525–456 B.C.) is known as the Father of Greek Tragedy. He had been a soldier and had fought at Marathon, at Sal′amis, and at Platæ′a, three great victories of the Greeks in the Persian Wars. In his tragedy *The Persians*, the author depicts his conception of the effect of the news of the battle of Salamis on the Persian court. The best-known and probably the greatest of his tragedies that has been preserved is *Prometheus Bound*, describing with much vividness and power the sufferings of that hero while chained to the rock (sec. 56).

Sophocles, the second of this remarkable triumvirate, was the son of wealthy parents. He was carefully trained in music and poetry. At the age of twenty-five, in a contest of the dramatists, Sophocles won first prize. It is said that Æschylus, who had been the master of the Greek drama for thirty years, was so chagrined at his defeat that he left Athens and went to live in Sicily. The characters of Sophocles were less heroic and more human than those of Æschylus. One of his female characters, the dutiful Antigone (an-tĭg′o-nē̇), is pronounced as nearly perfect as any to be found in literature.

Euripides was sixteen years younger than Sophocles, and forty-five years younger than Æschylus. Plutarch pronounces him the most tragic of poets. He depicted the life of the lower classes of the people. Eighteen of his plays still exist, while only seven of the plays of Sophocles have come down to us.

87. The Great Historians. — The two most renowned historians of Greece were Herodotus and Thucydides, both of whom flourished during the same brilliant age in Athenian history, the Age of Pericles.

Herodotus (484–425 B.C.) is called the Father of History, although there were many lesser writers of history before him. He was the first to write an extensive history which has come down to us. His great life work was his history of the Persian Wars. Most of our detailed knowledge of Marathon and Salamis comes from this interesting and painstaking writer.

Herodotus was born in Asia Minor, but became a resident of Athens. He traveled in many lands — Egypt, Asia Minor, Babylonia, and Italy — and wrote interesting accounts of them. He not only wrote down what he observed about the people among whom he traveled, but also included many tales and legends that were related to him.

Thucydides was younger than Herodotus by about thirteen years. The story is told that Thucydides, when a boy in his teens, was moved to tears while hearing Herodotus recite his history to an admiring crowd. It is agreed that Thucydides was a far more accurate and critical historian than Herodotus. He was exceedingly careful to be accurate in all he wrote. His great work is the history of the Peloponnesian (pĕl-o-po-nē′shan) War, to be described in our next chapter.

Xenophon (zĕn′o-phon) may be ranked third among the Greek historians, though he can hardly be classed with Herodotus and Thucydides. He was born in 445 B.C. and lived to be ninety years of age. He wrote some important historic works. The one best known is his *Anab′asis*, an account of the expedition of a Greek army in Asia Minor.

It was a source of no little pride to Xenophon that in his younger days he had been a disciple of the great philosopher Socrates. It is related that the philosopher, attracted by the comely appearance of the young man, wished to admit him into his circle of learners. Meeting him one day in a narrow passage, he placed his staff across the path and stopped him, and asked, "Where are those things to be purchased which are necessary to human life?" Xenophon was at a loss for a reply, and the philosopher asked, "Where are good and honest men to be found?" The boy still hesitated, and Socrates added, "Follow me and learn." From this time Xenophon is said to have been a faithful and devoted pupil of Socrates.

88. Demosthenes. — In the olden times before the invention of printing, oratory was more of a fine art, and orators had more influence with the people than at present. With few books and no newspapers or magazines, the people were largely dependent on public speakers for their information. Greece was preeminently the nation of oratory, and the prince of Greek orators was Demosthenes (385–322 B.C.). There are many stories of how this remarkable man struggled in his youth to overcome obstacles before he reached the goal of success.

One contemporary writer says that Demosthenes spoke with pebbles in his mouth to cure himself of stammering. He practiced before a mirror to correct his facial expression. To accustom himself to the tumult of a noisy audience, he practiced on the seashore where the waves were dashing against the rocks. In order to cultivate a clear style he copied and recopied many times the orations of the renowned men of the past, especially those scattered through the history of Thucydides. Such unwearied effort is sure to win success, and so it did in the case of Demosthenes. He became the greatest orator of his time if not of all time. To this day he is regarded in all lands as the peerless master of his art.

Among the great orations of Demosthenes are the *Philip'pics*, so called because they were directed against Philip II, king of Macedonia. For fourteen years this ambitious monarch of the north was held at bay in his encroachments on Greek soil, and it was chiefly through the masterly efforts of Demosthenes.

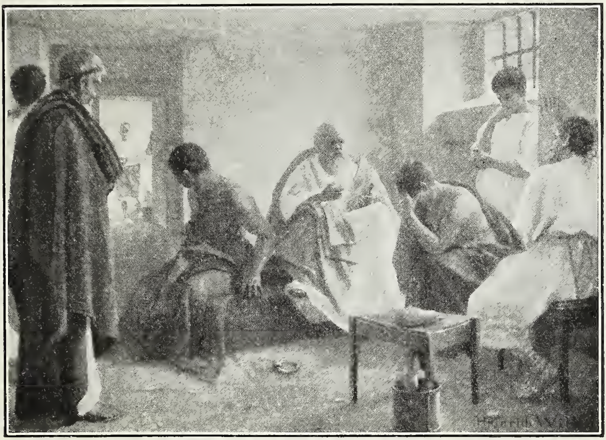
Athens rewarded her great son. The city voted him a crown of gold. But another noted orator disputed his right to it. The matter was decided by an oratorical contest. It was at this time that Demosthenes delivered his celebrated *Oration on the Crown*, and his victory was most decisive.

IV. THE GREAT PHILOSOPHERS

89. Socrates. — In studying the wonderful outburst of genius in Athens during the century of Pericles, we have noted some of the achievements of this little city in architecture and sculpture, in literature, oratory, and statesmanship. But her record in philosophy is probably the greatest of all. Among the thinkers of all time the names of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle must be placed in the first rank.

First in point of time was Socrates (469–399 B.C.). He was the son of poor parents, but being taken into the family of a rich man as tutor, he found ample opportunity for self-culture. Like nearly all the Greeks of his time he served in war and on one occasion he saved the life of his disciple Xenophon, the historian, by carrying him, wounded, back from the battle front. Above all things Socrates loved philosophy, the study of the causes and meaning of things.

Seeing that many people were misled by teachers of eloquence, called Sophists, Socrates set himself the task of correcting the public mind. All his teaching was oral, and he left no writings. He walked through the streets of Athens asking questions of groups of hearers, drawing them out by means of dialogue. This method of teaching is known as the Socrat′ic method.



The Death of Socrates

From a modern painting. The philosopher is awaiting the cup of hemlock poison which is to bring about his death. With him are friends, including Plato and his pupil Crito.

Socrates was a burly, ungainly looking man with a flat nose and massive forehead — the opposite of the Greek ideal of beauty. His maxim was " Know thyself." Without opposing the national religion, he taught the immortality of the soul and the existence of one supreme God who created and sustains the universe. He made many enemies and they caused his arrest and trial on the charge of corrupting the youth by leading them into false beliefs. He was condemned to death. With the utmost complacency he drank the cup of hemlock and expired at the age of seventy years. His admiring pupil Xenophon wrote an account of his teaching.

90. Plato. — The greatest of the pupils of Socrates was Plato (427–347 B.C.). An ambitious youth and ardent student, Plato began as a poet; but one day he happened to hear Socrates speaking to a crowd of eager listeners. He was captivated, and resolved thenceforth to give his life to philosophy. He became a faithful follower of the great teacher, and when Socrates was condemned to death Plato went into exile. Returning to Athens, he became a teacher in the garden called the Academy. From this we get our word academy, a place of learning.

Like Socrates, Plato believed in God and immortality. No other pagan teacher, it has been said, had so many points of affinity with Christian teaching. Unlike Socrates, Plato put his thoughts into written form. Many of his writings are in the form of dialogues in which Socrates is one of the speakers. His *Republic* pictures what the ideal state should be. His writings, full of poetic beauty and profound wisdom, left a deep impression on his age, and have been the delight of all ages since his day.

91. Aristotle. — In the renowned triumvirate of Athenian philosophers, Aristotle (384–322 B.C.) comes third. Born fifteen years after the death of Socrates, he was linked with that great man by Plato, who was the pupil of Socrates and the teacher of Aristotle. For many years Aristotle was a diligent student under Plato, but he worked out his own system of philosophy. He did not, like his teacher, confine himself to mind and morals; he dealt also with material things and with natural law. He wrote profoundly on logic, rhetoric, politics, poetry, physics, and metaphysics, and his works stand among the masterpieces of the ages.

It may be said that as Plato surpassed his teacher, Socrates, so Aristotle surpassed Plato. It is the common belief and is probably true that Aristotle stands without a peer as a philosophic thinker, that his intellect was the most profound and masterly in the history of the world.

Philip II, king of Macedonia, secured the services of this famous Greek philosopher as preceptor to his son and heir to his crown, Alexander, whom we know as Alexander the Great. For many years the royal pupil sat at the feet of the great Athenian, and later when he came to his father's throne he remembered his former teacher with many valuable gifts.

Questions and Topics. — I. What did Pericles do for Athens? See what you can find about Pericles in the school library. Write a short essay on Athens in the time of Pericles. Can you name a half dozen men now living who have, in your opinion, achieved immortal fame?

II. Describe the finest piece of architecture known to have been produced by the ancient world. Who was Phidias? What is meant by classic? Name a living sculptor.

III. What is literature? What can you tell of Homer? Can you name an epic poem written in English? What is lyric poetry? Who were Pindar and Sappho? Describe the theater of Dionysus. What was the origin of the word tragedy? What is a drama? a dramatist? Who were the great Greek historians? By what means did Demosthenes train himself in oratory? Why did an orator in those days have greater power than one in our times?

IV. What is philosophy? What was the maxim of Socrates? What was Plato's religion? Write a short essay on Aristotle. Do we give as much attention to the fine arts as the Athenians did? Do we give as much attention to money making? What can we learn by studying Athenian life?

Events and Characters. — Great work of Pericles. Adorning of the Acropolis; Phidias and Praxiteles, great sculptors. Homer and the *Iliad*, about 1000 B.C. Sappho and Pindar. Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides. Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon. Demosthenes. Socrates, Plato, Aristotle.

For Further Reading. — Same references as in preceding chapter; also Tarbell, *History of Greek Art*. Gardner, *Hand Book of Greek Sculpture*. Seignobos, *History of Ancient Civilization*, Ch. XIV. Goodspeed, *History of the Ancient World*.

Every teacher should require the class to read selections from the sources, such as may be found in the Source Books by Fling and Botsford. Each pupil should read the Funeral Oration of Pericles, at least one oration of Demosthenes, and excerpts from Plato and others.

CHAPTER VII

WARS OF THE GREEKS

I. The Persian Wars

92. Beginnings of a World Struggle. — For a thousand years or more before 500 B.C., the people of Hellas flourished unmolested in the land of Greece. They plowed the seas near and far with their little craft; they planted many colonies and developed a great commerce. At the beginning of the fifth century B.C. the Greeks were making great progress in philosophy, in literature and art, and in beautifying their cities. Now and then in the past they had had their petty wars among themselves or on their borders, but never had they come into serious hostile contact with any dangerous foe from without.

But an evil day came and the Greeks found themselves in a long life-and-death struggle with the greatest military power in the world. This conflict with the Persian Empire (sec. 34), known as the Persian Wars, occurred just before the brilliant outburst of genius in Athens as noted in the last chapter.

Darius was now on the Persian throne. He was extending his vast empire into Europe. He had annexed all of Asia Minor, including the Greek cities on the Ægean coast. He had made the Greek colonies about the Hellespont, and all around the Black Sea, subject to his iron rule. He annexed Thrace and Macedonia even up to the boundary of Thessaly. When the Greeks of Asia Minor revolted, he destroyed the noble city of Mile′tus, one of the largest and most cultured of all the Greek cities, leveled it to the ground, slew its defenders, and sold its women and children into slavery.

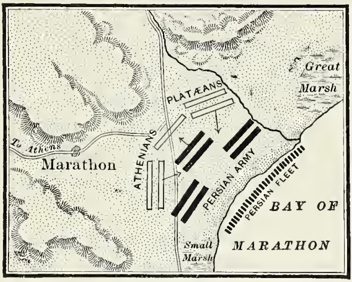
It seemed for a time as if the whole of Greek civilization was to be destroyed by the invading hordes of the Orient. But the Great King had yet to reckon with Athens and Sparta. The Athenians had sent aid to their hapless kinsmen of Miletus, and Darius was incensed; he would take revenge on a people so bold as to raise a hand against him. He prayed to his god that he might have vengeance on Athens, and he bade an officer repeat to him at every meal, "Master, remember the Athenians." He had reason later to remember the Athenians, and the world remembers them to this day.

93. The Battle of Marathon (490 B.C.). — King Darius was determined to punish the little Grecian states for defying the great Persian power. But first he would give them a chance to save themselves from destruction. He sent messengers to them to demand earth and water as an acknowledgment that he was governor of both land and sea. Many of the Greeks trembled in fear of the Great King. They gave his messengers earth and water; but not so at Athens and Sparta. The Athenians cast the messengers into a pit; the Spartans threw them into a well and bade them get all the earth and water they wanted.

Darius now made it a matter of honor to punish the Greeks. He collected a fleet of 600 vessels, and on them sent a great army to the coast of Attica. The Athenians sent a swift long-distance runner to Sparta to ask aid in repelling the Persian hordes. The distance was 150 miles, but he reached Sparta the next day after starting. "Men of Lacedæmon," he cried, "the Athenians implore you to come to their aid." The Spartans were willing, but owing to a superstition their army would not move before the full moon. The Athenians had to fight the battle alone, for the Persians were at hand and delay was impossible.

The Persian army landed on the plain of Marathon, about 24 miles northeast of Athens. The Athenian army was 10,000 strong, and on the eve of the battle it was increased by a thousand men from the friendly city of Platæa in Bœotia. The number of the Persian host is given by Herodotus as ten times greater, but it is believed that his figures are too large.

There were ten Athenian generals, who usually commanded in turn. The ablest of these was Miltiades (mĭl-tī′a-dēz), and he was chosen by his fellows to command on this famous day. The Persians opened the battle by shooting a cloud of arrows through the air. The Greeks darted beneath the flying missiles and grappled with the foe in a deadly hand-to-hand conflict. The Greeks were far superior in skill and training, and after the battle lines had surged to and fro a short time, the Persians gave way and ran to their ships, leaving many dead and dying on the field.[1]



Battle of Marathon, 490 b.c.

94. Results of Marathon. — Never before in the world's history had so much depended on the outcome of a battle as at Marathon. It was this conflict that decided whether Greek or Asiatic civilization was to prevail in Europe during the centuries to come. Had the Persians won this battle they would soon have overrun all Greece. Oriental despotism would have crushed out the growing democracy of this liberty-loving people, and its blossoming literature and art would have been blasted before the season of its fruitage. For thousands of years the leadership in human progress and civilization had been held by Asia, but now it passed into the hands of Europe, where it has since remained, and the supreme moment in making the transfer was the moment of the turning of the tide of battle on the plain of Marathon.

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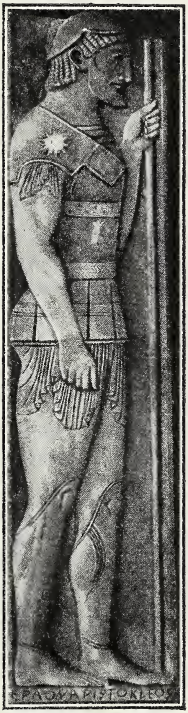
[1] It is said that an Athenian soldier, covered with blood and wounds, ran to carry the glorious news of the victory to Athens. When he reached the edge of the city the people gathered around him. He was dying from exhaustion and loss of blood. As he fell to the ground he gasped with his last breath, "Rejoice; we triumph." Modern Marathon races get their name from this famous incident.

95. The Ten Years' Respite. — The battle of Marathon placed Attica at the forefront of Greek states and made Athens the heart of the civilized world. A mound was thrown up on the battlefield to mark the grave of the heroic dead, and there it may be seen to this day. Miltiades was the hero of the hour, and statues were erected in his honor at Athens and Delphi.

The Persians returned to their own land beaten and dejected; but King Darius was all the more resolved that he would conquer the Greeks at any cost. He began preparing a gigantic expedition, but died before it was completed. His son and successor, Xerxes (zurk′sēz), a man far less able and far more boastful than Darius, continued the preparation.

Meantime Miltiades had died and another great man had arisen in Athens. This was Themistocles (the-mĭs′to-klēz), the leading statesman of his time. Themistocles was convinced that the hope of the future lay in making Athens a great sea power. Within a few years Athens had 200 triremes (trī′rēmz), the largest warships of the time. A trireme was a ship with three banks or tiers of oars, one above another. The oars of one tier were a yard longer than those of the tier below it. It required about two hundred men to handle a trireme.

From time to time the news reached the Greeks that great preparations were going



Greek Warrior[1]

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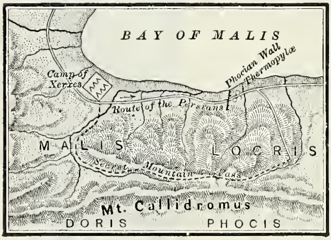
[1] Bas-relief of a hoplite, or heavy-armed foot soldier, found in 1838 some ten miles south of Marathon. It represents an Attic warrior of about 525 B.C. He is ready for battle, with all his armor on. The background was red, and the figure was painted in various colors. It is now in the National Museum at Athens.

on in Asia for another invasion of Greece. At length in the spring of 480 B.C. came the startling news that Xerxes, with the greatest army and navy ever assembled, had reached the Hellespont.

96. Thermopylæ. — One of the immortal words in Greek history is Thermop′ylæ.

The vast Persian army had crossed the narrow strait of the Hellespont on bridges of boats. It required seven days and nights to make the passage. Herodotus makes the number of fighting men 1,700,000, besides great numbers of followers. While his figures are doubtless too high there is little doubt that it was the greatest army ever assembled up to that time. This mighty horde now poured into Europe for the purpose of destroying the independence of Greece. And it was Athens that was the chief object of the Great King's wrath — Athens that had defied and humbled his father's army ten years before at Marathon. But Athens did not now stand alone. Various Greek states joined her, and among them was Sparta.

The Persians occupied all northern Greece, and to reach the central part they attempted the narrow passage at Thermopylæ. But here the Greeks made a stand, with a small army — three hundred Spartans with a few thousand allies. They were led by the Spartan king Leon′idas. As the Persians approached, the Greeks leaped upon and slew them with their long spears. Again and again the Persians rushed upon the Grecian phalanx, each time to be cut down and their bodies added to those of their fallen comrades.



Pass of Thermopylæ

At the time of Leonidas the pass was a path under the cliff about 40 feet wide.

For three whole days this little band of men held the mighty army at bay. Then a traitorous Greek, in the hope of gaining a reward, betrayed his countrymen by pointing out to Xerxes a secret path across the mountains. Soon the Persian hosts were pouring over the mountain in a torrent. To remain now at their posts meant certain death to the Greeks. Most of the allies fled; but Sparta had a law that bade her men conquer or die. Leonidas and his brave three hundred stood their ground and fought till every man was slain.[1]

97. **A View of the Two Armies.** — Great was the consternation among the Hellenes when the Persians broke through the mountain barriers into Central Greece. The way was now open to Athens. Many of the Greeks had already yielded to the invaders. Would the fruits of the noble victory of ten years before at Marathon be lost? Would European civilization be rent asunder and swallowed up by the Oriental despot and his Asiatic hordes? This was the vital question that had to be decided in this fateful year 480 B.C.

The invading host was a motley crowd. There were the Persians and Medes wearing soft tiaras, tunics of various colors about their bodies, "having scales upon them like the scales of a fish." They were armed with short spears and large bows with reed arrows, and each carried a dagger in his girdle. There were Assyrians with brass helmets, carrying shields, lances, daggers, and wooden clubs studded with iron. There were also Scythians (sĭth'i-anz) with their heavy battle-axes, men of India in cotton tunics bearing bows of cane with iron-pointed cane arrows, Parthians in cloaks of skin, Ethiopians clothed in leopard skins, Arabians, and many others, each with the dress and equipment of his country.

Against this motley horde the Greeks had to fight the battle of a higher civilization, not only for themselves, but for future generations. The Greeks were far fewer in numbers, but they had the great advantage of being better trained and of battling for home and family. The invaders had to be scourged into battle by their officers.

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[1] Two brothers of King Xerxes were killed in this fight, says Herodotus, and the Persians "fell in heaps." A stone lion was erected to mark the spot where Leonidas fell. The slain were buried where they died, and an inscription that marked the place read: "Go, stranger, tell the Lacedæmonians that we died in obedience to their law."

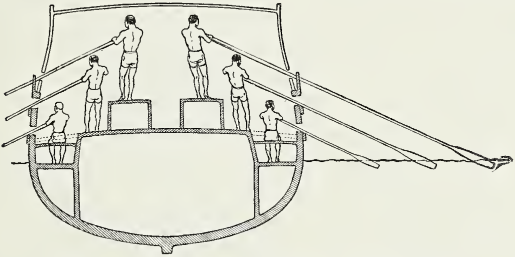
98. **The Battle of Salamis.** — The Great King entered Attica and was marching with his mighty host toward the doomed city. But Xerxes must have had his misgivings. He knew what marvelous warriors the Greeks had proved themselves at Marathon and Thermopylæ, and he heard many stories of the Greek character. Here is one from Herodotus:

The Great King was questioning some Greeks in his camp about the Olympic games. "For what prize do they contend?" asked the king. "An olive wreath," answered the men. One of the king's men thereupon exclaimed, "Good heavens, what manner of men are these against whom thou hast brought us to fight — men who contend with one another, not for money, but for honor!"

The city of Athens was deserted and the soldiers boarded the ships that lay in the bay between Attica and the island of Salamis. The Persian host marched on, entered the deserted Athens and burned it to the ground. Many of the Greeks now trembled with fear and were ready to flee for safety in their ships to the open sea, for the Persian fleet was near at hand. The boldest heart among them was that of their commander, Themistocles. He wanted to fight there, in the narrow bay, where he knew the Greeks would have the advantage. He sent Xerxes a letter urging him to attack immediately, lest the Greek ships should escape him altogether. The Great King, thinking it from some friendly sympathizer, took the bait. He ordered his fleet to attack without delay. Then occurred the battle of Salamis (480 B.C.), one of the most famous sea fights in history.

Xerxes had nearly 800 ships, and the Greeks had less than half that number. On a high place on the shore near by Xerxes had a throne erected, and on this he sat and watched the contest. What did he see?

He saw the well-trained Greeks ram his awkward vessels, smash their sides, and send them to the bottom of the bay. He saw thousands of men sink to rise no more. When he realized that the Greeks had won a complete victory, and that they might destroy his bridge of boats across the Hellespont, he hastened away with a large part of his army, betook himself back to Asia, and never again returned to the Grecian shores.



A SECTION OF A GREEK TRIREME (RESTORATION)

The Athenian trireme was a ship having three banks of oars. The oarsmen were placed in tiers, the top row wielding the longest oars. The ship was about 115 feet long, with a height above water of 10 feet and a width across decks of 18 feet

After the remainder of the Persian army had been destroyed the next year at the battle of Platæa, the Persian monarch abandoned all hope of conquering Greece. A few years later he was forced to sign a humiliating treaty by which he was prohibited from having a fleet in the Ægean Sea or an army within three days' march of its coasts.

II. CIVIL WAR IN GREECE

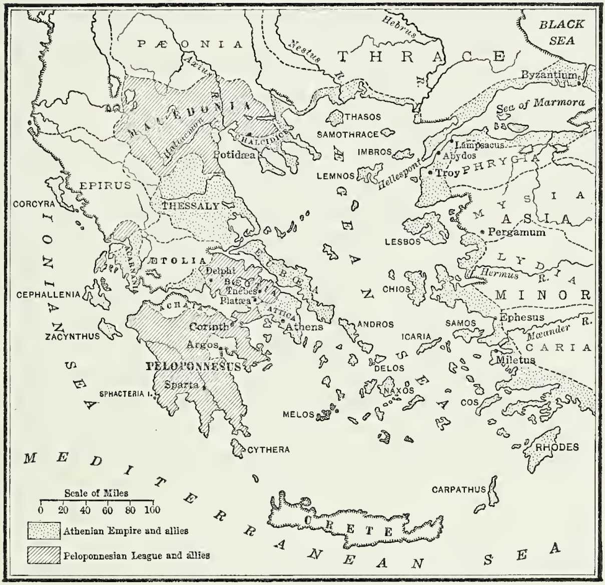
99. Weakness in the Greek Character. — After the Persian Wars, as we have seen, came the Age of Pericles. In many respects the Greeks were the leading people and the most admirable of antiquity. Small and half barren as their little country was, they developed a taste, a genius, in sculpture and architecture, in literature, philosophy, and oratory, that no other people, however great, has been able to surpass, and to this day the Greek models are followed and imitated in every civilized land.

But in one respect the Greeks were seriously deficient. They were wanting in the instinct of government. Kindred peoples as they were, with the same language and the same religion, it seems to us that they should have united their various states in a powerful all-Greek empire for the safeguarding of their institutions. But this they could not do. Many of the city-states developed strong local governments, but to unite in one solid union for the benefit of all seemed beyond their capacity. Had the thirteen American colonies, on winning their independence from British control, shown no better capacity for organizing a central government than that which characterized the Greeks, they would doubtless have fallen a prey to foreign intrigue and internal strife, and the great American nation of to-day would not exist.

The saddest chapter in the story of the Greeks is the account of their many disastrous, vicious wars among themselves, in which each side often appealed to the Persian king against their own brethren. The Peloponnesian War, the longest and most important of these conflicts, marked the beginning of the end of Grecian glory.

100. **Athens against Sparta.** — The southern Greeks, led by Sparta, formed a league called the Peloponnesian League. Farther north a confederacy was formed under the leadership of Athens, and gradually was transformed into an Athenian empire; it embraced parts of Central Greece, Thessaly, and most of the islands and coast lands of the Ægean Sea. The Spartans were Dorians (sec. 50), the Athenians were Ionians; and there was usually a spirit of rivalry, sometimes even of hatred, between the Dorian and Ionian Greeks. A conflict was inevitable, and in 431 B.C. the long, disastrous, fratricidal war had its beginning. It followed close upon the golden age of Athens, described in the last chapter.

Pericles was still at the helm in Athens at the outbreak of the war, and he guided affairs with a steady hand; but two years later (429 B.C.) he died of a pestilence that swept over the city, and there was none to fill his place. Seldom has a people suffered so great a loss at a critical moment as the Athenians suffered in the death of Pericles.


BLACK SEA
PÆONIA
THRACE
Hebrus
Nestus R.
Axius R.
MACEDONIA
Haliacmon
CHALCIDICE
Potidæa
THASOS
SAMOTHRACE
IMBROS
LEMNOS
Hellespont
Byzantium
Sea of Marmora
Lampsacus
Abydos
Troy
PHRYGIA
MYSIA
ASIA MINOR
Pergamum
LYDIA
Hermus R.
Ephesus
Mæander R.
CARIA
Miletus
SAMOS
ICARIA
CHIOS
LESBOS
ANDROS
DELOS
NAXOS
COS
RHODES
CARPATHUS
MELOS
CYTHERA
CRETE
EPIRUS
CORCYRA
IONIAN SEA
THESSALY
ÆTOLIA
ACARNANIA
Delphi
BŒOTIA
Thebes
Platæa
EUBŒA
ATTICA
Athens
ACHAIA
Corinth
Argos
PELOPONNESUS
Sparta
SPHACTERIA I.
CEPHALLENIA
ZACYNTHUS
ÆGEAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Scale of Miles
0 20 40 60 80 100
Athenian Empire and allies
Peloponnesian League and allies

GREECE IN THE TIME OF THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR

Athens was strong on the sea, and her fleets harassed the southern coasts. Sparta was weak on the sea, but strong in land forces, and her armies devastated many a fair community in the north.

101. Alcibiades and the Sicilian Expedition. — During a brief respite in the long struggle, a new war leader arose in Athens, —

Alcibiades (ăl-sĭ-bī′a-dēz), a man of much ability, young, popular, and dashing, but weak in judgment and in patriotism. This reckless young leader proposed that Athens undertake the conquest of Sicily, where some allies of Athens were already at war with Syracuse. It was a daring and perilous undertaking, but it appealed to the imagination, and the young men in thousands offered to join it. A great and costly fleet was built and in 415 B.C., with many thousands of men on board, it moved out of the harbor and sailed away for the western land.

But Alcibiades was accused of a crime, and instead of standing trial he turned traitor to his country and fled to Sparta. Sparta, advised by Alcibiades, sent a strong force to Sicily, and the Athenians were defeated. In later battles their whole fleet and army in Sicily were destroyed. The people of Athens wept and wailed over the loss of this splendid fleet and the forty thousand Athenians and allies who had perished. Never before had so great a calamity befallen them, and never again was Athens so prosperous and so great as it had been.

102. **The Fall of Athens.** — Sparta, with the aid of Persian gold, built a formidable fleet, and soon she discovered a strong commander. Lysan′der was the new master of the Spartan fleet. Eight years had passed since the disaster in Sicily, and Athens again had a splendid fleet of 200 triremes. The two fleets met in the waters of the Hellespont. The Athenians offered battle; the wily Lysander, safe under the walls of a city, refused. Day after day the same thing occurred. The Athenians came to believe that the Spartans were afraid to meet them. They grew careless and one day nearly all went ashore at the same time, leaving their ships in an open harbor. Thereupon Lysander deftly glided into the harbor and captured the entire fleet. The Athenians on shore, seeing what was taking place, ran with all haste to save their ships, but they could do nothing. Not only did they fail to save their fleet, but three thousand of them were captured by Lysander and every man put to death. Such was the cruelty of this cruel war.

Swiftly the news flew to Athens; the consternation and despair can only be imagined. Nothing since the Sicilian disaster was comparable to this.

The long war was nearing its end. Athens was not strong on land and she could not recover from this second calamity on the sea. She lay now at the mercy of Sparta, as every one knew. Lysander did not hurry; he knew that his prey could not escape. The following spring (404 B.C.), he appeared with his fleet in the harbor and demanded the surrender of the city that had so long defied the Spartan power. The people of Athens held out for a few weeks, but there was nothing before them but to throw themselves on the mercy of their enemies. They accepted the hard terms imposed by the Spartan commander, and the Peloponnesian War, of twenty-seven years' duration, was at an end.

Never in history was there a more regrettable war than this conflict of Greeks against Greeks. Thucydides the historian, who lived through most of the period, tells us that the devastation was frightful. The destruction of cities and the slaughter of the inhabitants, the wiping out of whole towns and villages, marked the path of the armies as they traversed the Grecian world year after year. Never thereafter did Greece recover from this damaging blow she had inflicted on herself through the Peloponnesian War.

Not long did Sparta hold the leadership she had won. In her government of other Greek states she proved herself a despot and a tyrant. Several of them revolted against her. Chief among them was Thebes, led by Epaminondas, who as a statesman and man of lofty ideals and lovable character compares not unfavorably with Pericles. In the war which followed, Sparta was completely humbled and her military power destroyed. Thebes became for a time the leading power in Greece, and even Athens, now that her old enemy was out of the way, again became an important Greek state.

103. Our Heritage from the Greeks. — Regretfully we take leave of these interesting people. Their disastrous civil wars marked the passing of the zenith of Grecian glory. Unable to recover from the effects of these wars, the Greek states in the next century fell a prey to the encroachments of Macedonia and still later were absorbed in the mighty Roman Empire. But Greece had lived her life and had done her work in the world. It was the Greeks that saved the world for freedom by beating off the Persians. They established the principles of democracy which are to-day the pride of our own country. In architecture and sculpture we still copy the Greek models. In physical culture no people pretends to surpass the ancient Greeks. No greater philosophers than Plato and Aristotle are known to the annals of history. Homer and half a dozen other Greek writers stand in the first rank among literary men of all time. The Greeks became the teachers of Europe, and in culture and refined taste the men of ancient Greece stand preeminent to this day in all civilized lands.

SIDE TALK

Ostracism. — The Athenians had a curious custom established about the time of the battle of Marathon, called Os′tracism. It was a system by which a public man could be banished from the country for ten years, later reduced to five years. The voting was done on pieces of oystershell (*ostrakon*) and from this came the term ostracism. Each voter wrote the name of the person he would banish on the shell and dropped it into an urn. At least six thousand votes were necessary for an election, and if more than half of them were cast against a man he was obliged to go into exile.

The object of this custom was to protect the state against the designs of tyrants by making it possible for the citizens to ostracize any one suspected of selfish designs on the government. But the privilege was shamefully abused. Any very popular or influential citizen was in danger of being ostracized. Some of the noblest and best men that Athens ever produced were driven from their homes after a service to the state that should have brought them the highest honor and love of the people. One of these was the great statesman Themistocles, the builder of the Athenian fleet and the winner of Salamis, the most famous naval battle of antiquity. He had made enemies and through their intrigues and owing to some mistakes of his public life he was put on trial. When the vote was counted more than half the little shells were found to bear his name and he was sent into exile. Sadly he departed from his native land, to which he was never to return. He went to Persia and was received with highest honor and was intrusted with the government of a province.

Among the most prominent contemporaries of Themistocles was Aristi'des, a man of high character, who became known as Aristides the Just. He too fell under the displeasure of the fickle public and was ostracized. The story is told that on the day of the voting a man who could not write, being near Aristides and not knowing him by sight, asked him to write "Aristides" on his shell. Aristides did so and then asked the man, "Why do you wish to ostracize him?" "Because," was the answer, "I am tired of hearing him called the Just."

Questions and Topics. — I. Who were the Persians? How and when did they come into world power? Why did they wish to subdue the Greeks? In what way was the battle of Marathon a landmark in history? In what way are we indebted to the men who won the battle? Describe the stand of Leonidas and his men at Thermopylæ. What can you tell of Themistocles and the battle of Salamis?

II. What was the great weakness in the Greek character? Compare the Greek states with our own thirteen colonies after the Revolution. Can you show that the Spanish-speaking countries of South America would have had better government since they won their independence if they had formed a union? What has kept the South American countries from falling into the hands of the powers of Europe? Who was Lysander? Write an essay on Our Heritage from the Greeks.

Events and Dates. — Battle of Marathon, Greeks defeat the Persians, 490 B.C.; also, they win the great sea fight at Salamis ten years after Marathon. Long war between Athens and Sparta begins 431 B.C. Death of Pericles, 429 B.C. Surrender of Athens to Lysander, 404 B.C.

For Further Reading. — Same as in the preceding chapter; also Greenidge, *Handbook of Greek Constitutional History.* Seignobos, *History of Ancient Civilization*, Ch. XIII. Fowler, *City State of the Greeks and Romans.* Every school should have at least one copy of Plutarch's *Lives*, and in studying Greek and Roman history the pupils should read and discuss the more important biographies given therein.

CHAPTER VIII

ALEXANDER THE GREAT

I. King Philip and Macedonia

104. Rise of Macedonia. — North of Greece, extending from the boundary of Thessaly, lay Macedonia. It was a wild region of lofty mountains and it comprised also two broad river valleys opening to the Ægean Sea. For unknown ages this rugged land had been occupied by a semi-barbarous people partly of Greek stock. They tilled the soil but little; they raised flocks and herds, but their chief business was hunting and fighting. The Macedonian who had not slain a wild boar was not permitted to eat at the table with the men, and one who had not killed his man in battle was obliged to wear a cord around his waist.

The Macedonians were hundreds of years behind the Dorians and Ionians in civilization, but as they had been admitted to the Olympic games we know that they were recognized as Greeks. They had no written laws; they were governed by a king whose word was law and whose power was almost absolute. The Persian control of Macedonia (sec. 92) was of short duration.

105. Philip of Macedon (359–336 B.C.). — The first of the Macedonian kings to make a name for himself and to lift his country into prominence was Philip II, known in history as Philip of Macedon (măs′e-dŏn). As a youth he spent some years as a hostage in Thebes, which was for a short time the leading state in Greece. Here the young prince learned the arts of peace and of war, and when he ascended the throne of Macedonia in 359 B.C. he was thoroughly trained and was burning with an ambition to make his country the leader of the Greek states.

Exhausted by nearly a hundred years of internal strife, Greece was no longer in condition to resist any great power that might come against her. Philip knew this and he was conscious of his own power. He was a man of imposing appearance, athletic, affable, and was a wonderful organizer. His ultimate purpose was, not to subdue and tyrannize over the Greek states, but to unite them under his leadership so as to present a solid front against the Persian king, who again held in his grasp many of the Greek cities of Asia Minor. By means of his army, by strategy of which he was a master, and by the use of gold for bribery, Philip carried out his plans with steady aim and with consummate skill.

Many of the cities of northern Greece were won by bribery. "No fortress is impregnable," said Philip, "if only one can introduce within it a mule laden with gold."

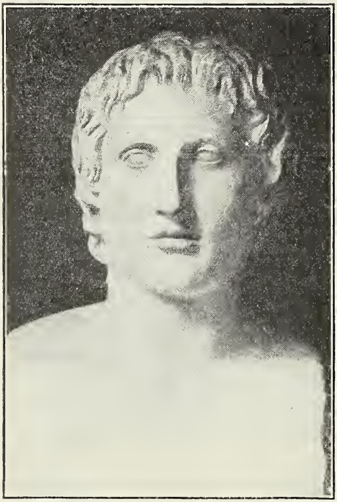
Philip's greatest obstacle was the resistance of Athens, led by the great orator Demosthenes (sec. 88), but even this was finally overcome by war, and Philip found himself master of nearly all Greece. Calling a congress at Corinth, he formed a confederacy with himself at the head, leaving each state to govern itself. Philip now revealed the great project of his life — the conquest of Persia. He had himself appointed commander in chief, and all preparations were made for a great expedition to the Orient. Soon after this the career of the ambitious monarch was cut short by assassination.

Philip of Macedon was a great ruler, with all the virtues and many of the faults of his age. Though cut off in the midst of his years, at the age of forty-seven, his name would stand higher among the records of the great but for the overshadowing fame of his illustrious son, who succeeded to the Macedonian throne.

II. ALEXANDER

106. Early Life of Alexander. — In the year 356 B.C., at the capital of Macedonia, was born a prince who was destined to become one of the most renowned warriors in the history of the world.

While very young, Alexander evinced remarkable will, courage, and energy. The well-known story of his riding the untamed horse, Buceph'alus, illustrates his character. As a boy he was thoughtful and calculating. He looked forward to the time when he would succeed his father on the throne and become the hero of great deeds. On one occasion when the people were rejoicing over a victory won by King Philip, Alexander complained that his father would conquer every country and leave nothing for him to do.


Alexander the Great
From a bust in the Louvre.

As a teacher for his son and heir, King Philip had secured the celebrated Greek philosopher Aristotle (sec. 91), and to him the future conqueror was indebted for his cultivated taste for literature and philosophy. Alexander became exceedingly fond of Homer, and a finely written copy of the *Iliad*, presented to him by his teacher, he carried with him in all his campaigns. Among his companions, Alexander was generous and kind-hearted, but he never permitted them to forget that he was born to a throne and that he was their master. But with all his good traits he had grave faults. He became a hard drinker as he approached manhood, and he had a vicious temper, which often got beyond his control.

107. **Crossing the Hellespont.** — Alexander was but twenty years of age when he came to his father's throne. When the news of Philip's death spread over his extensive kingdom there were

signs of rebellion at many points against the youth who had succeeded him. But Alexander quickly gained the mastery. Then he marched into Greece and secured for himself the same promise of allegiance that had been made to his father. Thebes alone among the Greek cities rebelled, and he destroyed the city, selling 30,000 of the people into slavery and sparing only the temples, the priests, and the house of Pindar the poet.

Alexander was now ready to enter upon the great project of his life, which had been the dream of his father — the conquest of Persia. After a great religious festival of nine days to Jupiter and the Muses, his splendid army of 35,000 men set out on the great journey from which few were ever to return.

The troops marched overland to the Hellespont, where 150 triremes had been sent to bear them across the narrow strait. The landing was made at Aby′dos in Asia Minor, not far from the ruins of the ancient city of Troy. To the site of this famous city Alexander paid a visit while his army was crossing the strait. Here among the ruins he reread the vivid descriptions of Homer which his great teacher, Aristotle, had taught him to love in his boyhood, and he was inspired as never before to imitate the great deeds of the heroes of the Trojan War.

108. Tact and Foresight of Alexander. — Perhaps there has been in all history no more consummate genius than Alexander in bending everything within his reach to the one ultimate goal. When he destroyed the city of Thebes he meant to give a terrible example of the penalty that awaited those who might be tempted to rebel against his power, but his sparing the house of Pindar made him friends among poets and authors everywhere, and his sparing of the priests and temples won him thousands of admirers among religious devotees. Before starting on his Persian expedition he owned vast estates as private property. Caring nothing for riches, he gave away his lands, parceling them out among his friends and officers, thus "grappling them to his soul with hoops of steel." Being asked what he had left for himself, he answered, "Hope."

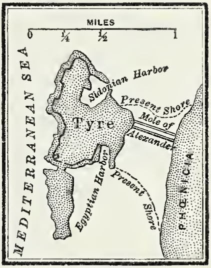
Again, after campaigning for some months in Asia Minor, winning in every contest, he decided, on the approach of winter, to permit every man who had been married shortly before leaving home to return and spend the winter with his bride and rejoin the army in the spring. The offer was gladly accepted, and though the bridegrooms were not so many that their absence weakened the army greatly, they were sufficiently numerous to spread the news of his brilliant victories and his generosity to every corner of Greece and Macedonia.

109. Exploits in Asia Minor. — In his march through Asia Minor Alexander rescued the Greek cities along the coast. One of these cities, Lamp′sacus, was said to have been obnoxious to the Greeks, and Alexander determined to destroy it. The people of the city, hearing of his intention, sent a messenger to implore his mercy. As the man approached, Alexander, knowing his mission, took an oath that he would not grant his request. The messenger's wit did not desert him. He quickly said, "I am come to implore you to destroy Lampsacus." Alexander, pleased at the man's wit, kept his oath literally and spared the city.

Turning inland, the conqueror visited Gor′dium, the old capital of Phrygia (frĭj′i-a; map facing page 128). In the temple was the sacred chariot of the old king Gordius. The king had tied the pole of the chariot to the yoke with a thong. The knot, it was said, could not be untied, and an oracle had declared that "he who can untie that knot will become master of Asia." Alexander solved the problem quickly by cutting the knot with his sword, and we still speak of solving an apparently insoluble problem as "cutting the Gordian knot."

110. The Battle of Issus; the Siege of Tyre (333 B.C.). — At the northeast corner of the Mediterranean lies the valley of Issus. Here the Persian king, Darius III, with a vast army said to have numbered 600,000 men, met the Macedonian conqueror in battle. But his unwieldy host proved no match for the well-trained Greeks; the victory of Alexander was complete. Darius had ordered his generals to "seize the young fool and send him bound hand and foot to Persia." But now he found it impossible himself to do this, with his enormous army at his back. Darius had come to Issus with great pomp and had brought rich treasures, all of which fell into the hands of the enemy. His army was broken to pieces and he himself escaped across the mountains with only a few followers.

From Issus, Alexander proceeded down the coast to Tyre (sec. 46), the flourishing Phœnician city that sent its ships to every part of the known world. The city, situated on an island near the coast, was difficult of approach, but nothing humanly possible could daunt the ambitious Macedonian. He built a causeway or mole of earth and rock and timber through the sea to the island. This prodigious piece of work required half a year, but it was successful, and the invading army scaled the walls and took the city by storm.



Siege of Tyre

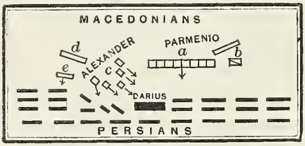
While here the conqueror received a communication from Darius offering him a great sum of money and agreeing to cede to him all the territory west of the Euphrates if he would stop his crusade of conquest against Persia. His leading general, Parme′nio, urged his master to accept the offer. "I would, if I were Alexander," said Parmenio. "Yes," replied Alexander, "and so would I if I were Parmenio." The offer was haughtily rejected.

111. Alexander in Egypt. — Leading his army into Egypt, Alexander found the people so submissive that he refrained from acts of violence. They had long been subject to Persia and they welcomed a change of masters.

For two things this excursion by the great Macedonian into the land of the famous river is remembered in history: first, the founding of a city which he called after his own name, Alexandria, and which grew into one of the great cities of the world; second, his visit to an Egyptian oracle.

By this time Alexander's head was completely turned. He was drunk with power. He desired to make his followers believe that he was a superhuman being. Far inland across the desert waste, in the verdant oasis of Siwah (sē′wä), was located a temple to Jupiter Ammon, a celebrated deity of the time. Thither Alexander determined to go to inquire of the oracle if he was a god. With a chosen company he set out across the boundless sea of sand. After a few days' march the men were appalled at the solitude of the vast expanse around them. The desert with its sublime and solemn stillness impresses the soul more profoundly than the rolling billows of the sea. The men would fain have turned back; but Alexander urged them on. Nothing could daunt his iron will. Reaching the shrine, he had the priests proclaim him a son of Jupiter Ammon, and henceforth he tried to persuade himself and his followers to believe that he, like the heroes of Homer, was more than human.

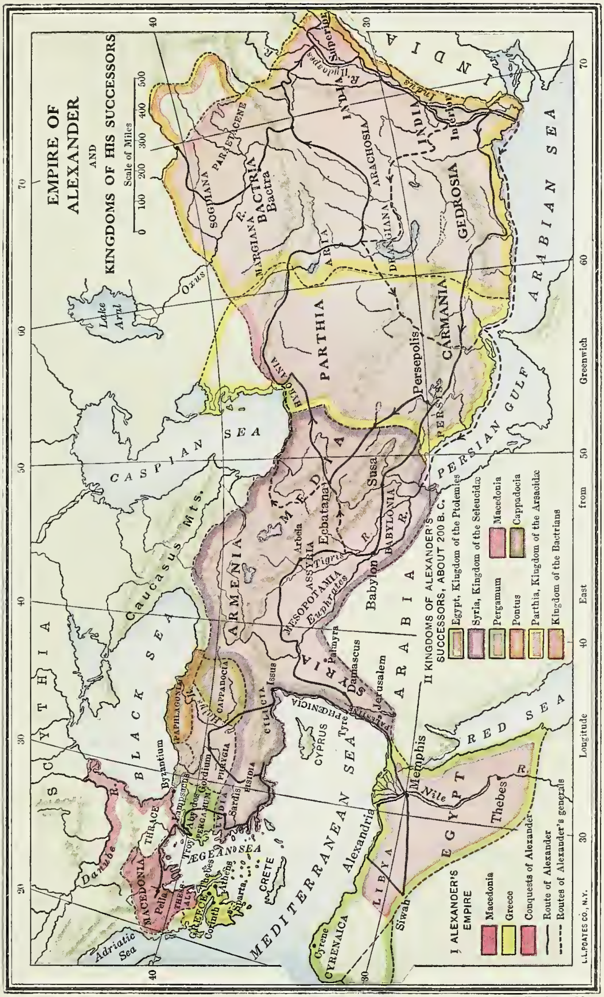
112. **The Battle of Arbela** (331 B.C.). — The great and decisive victory in the career of the Macedonian warrior was yet to be won. Leaving a governor in charge of Egypt, Alexander moved northward through Syria and turned eastward into the heart of the Persian Empire. On the plains of Mesopotamia, near the site of Nineveh, he met the mighty hosts of Darius, and here was fought one of the decisive conflicts in the world's history. It is known as the battle of Arbe′la, though the city of Arbela was twenty miles from the battle ground.



Battle of "Arbela"

a, Macedonian heavy-armed foot soldiers; *b* and *c*, cavalry; *d*, light-armed foot soldiers; *e*, archers and javelin throwers.

The year that had passed since the battle of Issus, Darius had employed in collecting a far greater army than before. It consisted of more than a million men gathered from all parts of his vast empire. There were fifteen elephants, two hundred scythed chariots, and 40,000 horsemen. This mighty host was drawn


EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER
AND
KINGDOMS OF HIS SUCCESSORS
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
I ALEXANDER'S EMPIRE
Macedonia
Greece
Conquests of Alexander
Route of Alexander
Routes of Alexander's generals
II KINGDOMS OF ALEXANDER'S SUCCESSORS, ABOUT 200 B. C.
Egypt, Kingdom of the Ptolemies
Syria, Kingdom of the Seleucidæ
Pergamum
Pontus
Parthia, Kingdom of the Arsacidæ
Kingdom of the Bactrians
Macedonia
Cappadocia
Longitude East from Greenwich
SCYTHIA
BLACK SEA
Caucasus Mts.
CASPIAN SEA
Lake Aral
Oxus
Danube R.
Adriatic Sea
MACEDONIA
Pella
THRACE
Byzantium
THESSALY
GREECE
Thebes
Athens
Corinth
Sparta
ÆGEAN SEA
CRETE
Troy
Lampsacus
Abydos
PERGAMUM
LYDIA
Sardis
Gordium
PHRYGIA
PISIDIA
PAPHLAGONIA
Halys
CAPPADOCIA
CILICIA
Issus
CYPRUS
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
PHŒNICIA
Tyre
PALESTINE
Jerusalem
Damascus
SYRIA
Palmyra
ARMENIA
MESOPOTAMIA
Euphrates
ASSYRIA
Tigris R.
Arbela
Ecbatana
MEDIA
Babylon
BABYLONIA
Susa
ARABIA
PERSIAN GULF
PERSIS
Persepolis
CARMANIA
HYRCANIA
PARTHIA
ARIA
DRANGIANA
GEDROSIA
ARACHOSIA
MARGIANA
BACTRIA
Bactra
SOGDIANA
PARETACENE
INDIA Superior
R. Hydaspes
INDIA Inferior
Indus
INDIA
ARABIAN SEA
RED SEA
EGYPT
Memphis
Nile R.
Thebes
Alexandria
LIBYA
Siwah
CYRENAICA
Cyrene
20
30
40
50
60
70
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Facing 128

up in battle array on an extensive plain north of the Tigris River, and here it awaited the invader. With a few attendants, under the cover of darkness, Alexander crept near and at break of day stood on a little hill overlooking the plain on which the Asiatic hosts were encamped. For miles the plain was covered with myriads of tents, with endless lines of soldiers ready for battle. His own army numbered scarcely fifty thousand. A weaker man would have quailed at the project before him.

Alexander ordered the battle, and in one day of indescribable carnage the Persian legions were torn to pieces. King Darius escaped on a fleet horse, but was slain later by one of his own subjects.

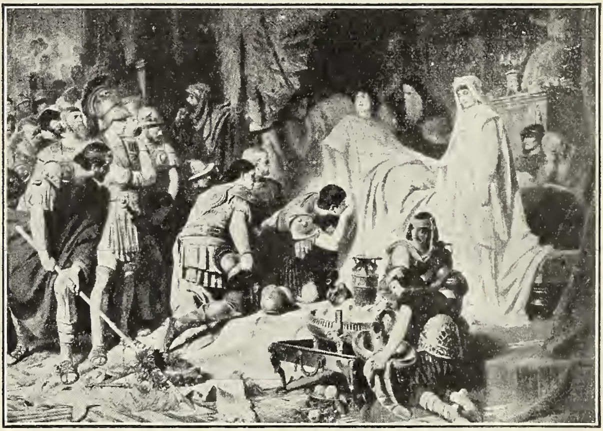
113. Babylon, Persepolis, and the Indus. — After his great victory of Arbela Alexander found himself master of the Persian Empire. From Arbela he proceeded southward to Babylon, which he chose to make his capital. Thence he went to Susa and later to Persepolis, in each of which he secured vast stores of gold and silver, the accumulation of ages of the Persian kings. At Persepolis, one of the capitals of the empire, he burned the great palace of the king and wreaked vengeance on the people, not for anything they had done, but because many years before one of their kings, Xerxes, had devastated Greece.

After subduing some mountainous tribes of the north, Alexander led his army far to the east to the valley of the Indus in India. Even yet this man of boundless ambition was not satisfied. He would push on through India to the valley of the Ganges. But at last he found an obstacle that he could not overcome. His army refused to go farther. For two days Alexander sulked in his tent and then yielded to the wishes of his men and set out on the return journey to Babylon.

114. Organizing the Empire; Death of Alexander. — The empire now controlled by Alexander was the most extensive the world had yet known. From the valley of the Indus in India to the western boundary of Greece and from the northern confines of the old Assyrian Empire to the southern boundary of Egypt —

all was under the control of one man. But even this did not satisfy the restless soul of Alexander. He planned the conquest of Arabia, Africa, and western Europe, and determined to build a string of fortresses from Babylon to the Red Sea.

Returning to Babylon, he organized the empire with great administrative skill. He now affected to live as his Persian predecessors had lived. He established himself with all the pomp of Oriental monarchs and required his subjects to regard him with divine homage. But the time was fast approaching when this unconquered hero was to grapple with a foe that he could not conquer. He had gathered a great army and was about to make an expedition into Arabia when, one day in June, 323 B.C., after a night of drinking and debauchery, he was seized with a violent fever. His powerful frame had been weakened with exhausting campaigns and sumptuous living, and he died, at the



Death of Alexander the Great

From a modern painting. Around his bed were gathered his generals. They asked whom he wished to succeed him. Drawing his signet ring from his finger, he said, "To the strongest."

age of thirty-three. His body was carried to Egypt and laid to rest in a golden coffin at the city of Alexandria, and a stately mausoleum was erected in his honor.

115. **Results of the Career of Alexander.** — It is difficult to appraise the work of this wonderful man. Brief and brilliant was his career. Through his amazing energy and his unbounded ambition he crowded into his short reign of thirteen years the deeds of many lifetimes. His armies never knew defeat. He conquered many nations and founded many cities. But such a man could have no successor. There was no power that could hold his empire together when he was gone, and it was divided among his generals.

In Greece and Macedonia there was strife and warfare for many years, the Greeks continually trying to throw off the yoke of Macedonia. But the glory of Greece was in the past, and the history of this period is far less interesting than that of the olden days when Greece led the world in the arts of war and peace.

Whatever may have been the motives of Alexander the Great, it is certain that, though his empire soon fell apart, his conquests were productive of great and lasting results. With all his grave faults Alexander was a true friend of learning and culture. His conquests broke down all barriers and ended the long strife between the West and the East. They opened the way for Greek colonization and the carrying of Greek culture to the Orient. The Greek language also was diffused far and wide and it became the language of culture in many nations. This general leveling of the people of southeastern Europe and western Asia, and the diffusion of the Greek language and culture through the conquests of Alexander, smoothed the way for the conquest of Rome in a later century and still later for the spread of the Christian religion.

Questions and Topics. — I. Describe Macedonia and its early inhabitants. Tell what you know of Philip of Macedon. Why has Macedonia become interesting and important in recent years?

II. Describe Alexander's youth. What is said of him in the cyclopedia? In what way did he show great skill? Why did the Egyptians yield meekly to Alexander? Has a conqueror a moral right to make conquests? What do you think of the theory that might makes right? What was the extent of Alexander's empire? What good results came of his conquests? How did the acquiring of great power affect Alexander? Compare him with George Washington in this respect.

Events and Dates. — Philip II, the first great king of Macedon, d. 336 B.C. Alexander the Great, b. 356 B.C.; taught by Aristotle. Siege of Tyre, 333 B.C. Battle of Arbela, 331 B.C. Death of Alexander, 323 B.C.

For Further Reading. — Seignobos, *History of Ancient Civilization*, Ch. XV. Mahaffy, *Alexander's Empire*. Goodspeed, *History of the Ancient World*. Bury, *History of Greece*. Wheeler, *Alexander the Great*.

ANCIENT ROME

CHAPTER IX

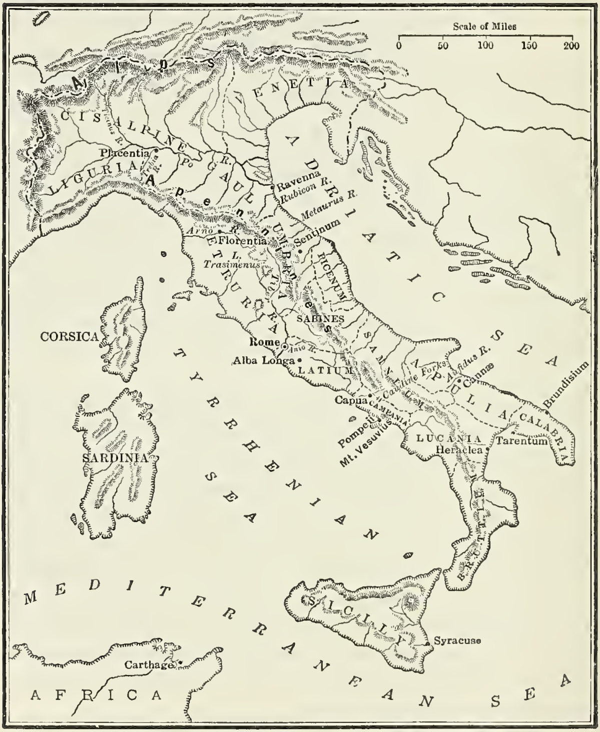
EARLY ROME

I. PREHISTORIC ITALY

116. Rome in History. — The greatest of the nations of the ancient world was Rome. The debt of the modern world to the ancients is incalculably great. Our modern arts and sciences for the most part had their origin in the far past. The modern civilized world is indebted to the Hebrews for its religion, to the Greeks for its best models of art and culture, and to Rome for its science of government and law.

Rome began as a crude village of barbarians on the Ti′ber River. It grew into a city-state and was ruled by kings. More vigorous than its neighbors, it began to conquer and annex them, and so continued until the whole Italian peninsula came under its control. Then it reached out into the world and, as the centuries passed, it overpowered one people after another until the civilized world had yielded to the dominion of this one city. The kingdom was replaced by a republic, and the republic merged into an empire. Rome had its day and ran its course. It then fell to pieces and out of the fragments were formed many of the modern nations of Europe. In this first chapter of Roman history we shall study the beginnings of the great city.

117. The Land of Italy. — Of the three great peninsulas comprising southern Europe, the middle one is Italy. It is about two and a half times the size of Pennsylvania. The northern boundary is a mountain wall, the Alps, the loftiest mountain range in Europe. This mountain wall has often proved a barrier to invading armies, from the earliest times down to the invasion by Austrians during the recent World War. From its foothills extends the most expansive valley in Italy, the valley of the Po River, which opens eastward to the Adriatic Sea. South of the Po Valley is the Apennine mountain range, which curves to the south and extends through the peninsula to the "toe of the boot."


Scale of Miles
0 50 100 150 200
Alps
CISALPINE GAUL
VENETIA
ADRIATIC SEA
Ticinus R.
Trebia R.
Placentia
LIGURIA
Apennines
Po R.
Ravenna
Rubicon R.
Metaurus R.
Sentinum
Arno R.
Florentia
ETRURIA
L. Trasimenus
UMBRIA
Tiber R.
PICENUM
SABINES
Rome
Anio R.
Alba Longa
LATIUM
SAMNIUM
Caudine Forks
APULIA
Aufidus R.
Cannae
Brundisium
CALABRIA
Tarentum
Capua
CAMPANIA
Pompeii
Mt. Vesuvius
LUCANIA
Heraclea
BRUTTII
CORSICA
SARDINIA
TYRRHENIAN SEA
SICILY
Syracuse
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Carthage
AFRICA

Mountains, Rivers, and Divisions of Italy

There is a marked contrast between the geography of Italy and that of Greece. The gulfs and bays of Greece are chiefly on the east, making that part of the country inviting to settlers. On the other hand, the eastern coast of Italy, south of the Po Valley, is barren and forbidding, as the mountains in many places extend to the seashore. The western coast of Italy, with broader and more fertile plains, is more indented and more conducive to colonization. The two peninsulas, as one historian expresses it, turn their backs to each other. For this reason both countries were settled for hundreds of years before they came to know much of each other.

118. The Early Inhabitants. — The dawn of historic times discloses in the peninsula which later came to be called Italy many independent peoples. Chief among them were the Italians, the Etrus′cans, and the Greeks. The Greeks occupied the southern coasts and were colonists from Greece, as we have already learned.

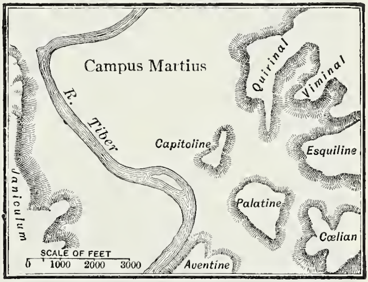
The Italians came to be the dominant race, and gave their name to the peninsula. They were a group of Indo-European peoples, and had probably migrated from Asia or from eastern Europe at an early period, perhaps 2000 years B.C. The Italians occupied a large portion of central Italy. The most interesting subdivision of this race was the Latins, who dwelt in Latium (lā′shĭ-um), just south of the Tiber, the largest of the rivers of the western slope of the Apennines. They tilled the soil in a rude way and kept flocks and herds. They lived in villages of huts with roofs of straw. Stockades were built on the near-by hills, and to them the people could flee for refuge on the approach of an enemy. Their chief city was Alba Longa, on the slope of the Alban Mount some miles southward from the Tiber. Here the people of Latium gathered once a year for a great festival, when they sacrificed an ox to Jupiter.

That the Latins and other Italians were akin to the Greeks is indicated by the resemblance of the Latin and Greek languages. Perhaps in remote times they had been one people and in their migrations had become separated. Those settling in Greece and the Ægean lands became the Greeks and those settling in Italy became Italians. In their advance in civilization the Greeks left the Italians behind by several centuries because of their contact with the civilized peoples of the Ægean Islands, Asia Minor, and Egypt.

The Etruscans were for a long time the most civilized people in Italy, except the Greeks on the southern coast. They occupied Etru'ria (now Tus'cany) on the western coast north of the Tiber, and they also had settlements in other parts of the peninsula. Who the Etruscans were and where they came from is not known. They were a mysterious people and bore no resemblance to their neighbors. They had a written language, but it is wholly unknown to modern scholars. The Etruscans built fine houses and tombs; they made ornaments of gold and ivory and amber and had beautifully painted vases. Their religion was somber and depressing. They predicted the future through the flight of birds and the appearance of the entrails of animals offered in sacrifices, and this practice was copied from them by the Latins.

119. Legends of Early Rome. — The founding of Rome, the Latin city that was destined to rule the world, took place in an early period, the date of which no one knows. But there grew up a wealth of legend about the early history of the city which was accepted as fact by the Romans and by the rest of the world for many hundred years. The historian Liv'y and the poet Ver'gil put these fanciful stories in order long after Rome had become a world power. Here they are in a very brief form.

Æne'as, one of the heroes of Troy (sec. 58), wandered to Italy and married Lavin'ia, a daughter of the king of Latium. Among their descendants were the twin brothers, Rom'ulus and Re'mus, whose wicked uncle threw them into the Tiber and occupied the throne which should have been theirs. They drifted ashore, were nourished by a wolf and reared by a shepherd. On reaching manhood and discovering their origin they slew their uncle who had attempted to murder them. Romulus later founded a city on the Pal'atine hill, near a great bend in the Tiber River, 753 B.C., and called it Rome after his own name.[1] He drew many men to him and set up a city government. At first there was no family life in Rome, and to secure wives the men made a festival, invited the neighboring Sabines (sā′bīnż), and while it was in progress the Romans seized the young women and carried them off. Later the Romans and the Sabines became friends. After a reign of thirty-seven years Romulus was translated to the skies and was afterward worshiped as a god.



The Hills of Rome

There were seven kings of early Rome, Romulus being the first. The last of the kings was Tarquin′ius Super′bus, who extended the city boundaries and erected fine buildings. But he was so haughty and unbearable to the people that they rose against him and drove him from the city.[2] The people then set up a republic (509 B.C.).

There are many stories of the time of the Roman kings. Some of them are no doubt based on fact; others are pure fiction. One of the most famous is the story of Horatius (ho-rā′shĭ-us) at the bridge. During a war with Etruria, it was said, a large Etruscan army, led by Lars Por′sena, approached the Tiber from the north. The only way to save Rome was to destroy a wooden bridge which spanned the river near the city. Strong men with axes rushed to the work, but the hostile army was at hand. At this moment

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[1] There were six other hills near the Palatine on which Rome was founded. Two of them were also near the river, the Cap′itoline, which was farther up the stream, and the Av′entine, which was below the Palatine. Back of these were four hills known by the names Quir′inal, Vim′inal, Es′quiline and Cæ′lian. In time all these were occupied by Rome and it was often called the City of the Seven Hills.

[2] It is believed by investigators of early Roman history that all the seven Roman kings were Etruscans.

Horatius, a Roman captain, shouted that if two others would join him, they would go to the other end of the bridge and keep the enemy at bay till the work could be finished. Two men leaped forward and the three dauntless Romans were soon on the other side fighting the advance guard of the coming army. The men with axes struck blow on blow. The bridge began to totter, and they called to Horatius and his companions to hasten back and save their lives. Two of them did so, but Horatius remained and fought the enemy single-handed till the breaking timbers gave way and the bridge fell with a crash into the river. Horatius then leaped into the water and swam safely to the other shore. Rome was saved.[1]

II. ROMAN RELIGION AND SOCIAL LIFE

120. The Gods of the Romans. — The account of Greek religion (secs. 59–61) covers, in a general way, the same subject with respect to the Romans, as there is much similarity between them. Only a few points peculiar to the Romans will need our attention here.

Jupiter was the greatest of the Roman gods, but Mars was the favorite deity. The people believed themselves the children of Mars, made feasts to him, and gave his name to the month of March, which was the first month in the Roman year. Ja′nus, the god of gates and of beginnings, had two faces, looking in opposite directions. The first month in our year received its name from this god.

The Romans had a deity for everything that happened in nature. They invested the trees, the hills, the streams, and fountains with local spirits. One god caused the seed to sprout, another watched over the growth, while still another cared for the ripened grain.

Vesta was the goddess of the home. In her temple at Rome were six vestal virgins, who kept the sacred fire forever burning on the hearth. The welfare and safety of the city were supposed to depend on their fidelity to duty.

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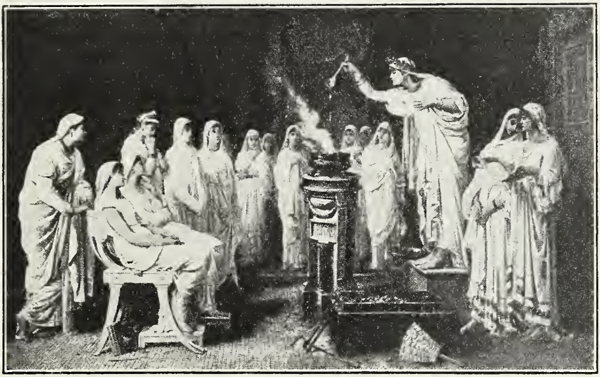
[1] Lord Macaulay wrote a stirring ballad on Horatius at the Bridge.

The Penates (pė-nā′tēz) and Lares (lā′rēz) were household gods who guarded family life. They were invisible spirits who were believed to hover about among the members of the family at all times.



School of Vestals

The vestal virgins were girls chosen for a period of thirty years. In the first ten years they learned their duties, in the second ten they practiced them, and during the third they instructed the novices. Besides tending the sacred fire, the vestals offered sacrifice and poured on the altar libations of wine and oil. They occupied seats of honor at public games. Like the members of later Christian sisterhoods, they were bound by vows not to marry.

121. Priests and Worship. — The chief priest, called Pon′tifex Max′imus, was a high state officer. The priests serving under him had charge of the religious festivals and worship, but they were not charged with the care of souls; they were merely servants of the gods and guardians of religious matters.

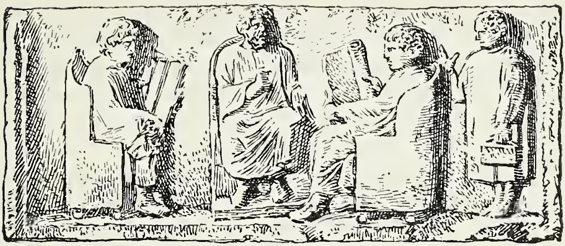
The Roman did not worship the gods because he felt himself a sinner, but rather because he wished to gain some favor from them. And he expected his gods to respond in accordance with his devotion and offering. A great Roman general was dying; the people prayed for his recovery and offered sacrifices to the gods. But when it was announced that the general had died they grew angry, overturned the altars, and threw the statues of the gods into the streets.

The Romans believed in signs and omens. What the Greeks tried to learn from the Delphian oracle the Romans thought they learned from watching the flights of birds and examining the entrails of slain animals. The people were very superstitious, and every unusual occurrence excited attention. A comet or an eclipse in the sky, a lightning flash, even a rat running across the road — all these had their meaning to the superstitious Roman. At one time the Roman Senate was assembled to discuss a very strange occurrence, namely, that a chicken with three feet had been hatched.

122. **The Roman Family.** — The foundation of Roman society was the family. The family consisted of the parents, the unmarried daughters, the sons with their wives and children. A daughter on being married became a member of her husband's family. The father of the family (*pa'ter famil'ias*) was absolute monarch in his own home. He could sell his wife and children into slavery, or even put them to death. Doubtless this right was very seldom exercised. The father performed the religious rites for the family and all outside the family were excluded from the ceremonies.

Marriage was a religious duty for the Romans, as it was for the Greeks. A Roman woman, in the early period, was subject to her father until her marriage, after which she was subject to her husband. However, she was not a social cipher, as in Athens. She sat at the table with her husband, received visitors, and managed the slaves and household in her own way. She was free to go into the market place or to call on her friends as she liked.

The children were taught in the home by the parents or by slaves until they reached the age of seven, when they were sent to school. The schools were private and each pupil had to pay a



ROMAN SCHOOL SCENE — BAS-RELIEF FROM A TOMBSTONE
The two older sons of a landowner are reading under the direction of a tutor. The youngest son, wax tablets in hand, stands waiting for his turn to recite.

small fee. Girls and boys were admitted to the schools, but usually a girl did not remain many years in school. She spent most of her girlhood with her mother, learning the duties of the household, preparing for an early marriage. In the schools the children learned to read, to write, and to cipher, but they were not taught music and poetry as in Greece. Books, like the Greek books (sec. 71), were few and expensive. For writing letters the Romans used tablets thinly coated with wax, on which they wrote with a small pointed rod called a stylus. The blunt end of the stylus was used in smoothing out the wax to make an erasure. The Roman youth was also taught self-reliance, respect for law, reverence for the gods, and obedience to authority. On the whole, the education of the Roman youth was well-rounded, but less attention was given to physical training than in Sparta, and less to training in the fine arts than in Athens.

Above the Roman family were the *gens* (plural *gen'tes*), the *cu'ria* (plural *curiae*), and the *tribe*. The gens was composed of a number of families closely related to each other and descended from a common ancestor. The curia was formed by a union of several gentes, comprising the people of a community.

At a later time the Roman people were divided into two great classes, — the Patricians (pa-trĭsh'anz) and the Plebeians (ple-bē'yanz) or Plebs. The patricians were the descendants of old families who had founded the city, or had lived in or near it for a long time. In the early period they were the ruling class; that is, they alone had the right to hold office and to appear in the assembly of the people. The plebs were the descendants of foreigners and of conquered peoples round about Rome.

III. THE GOVERNMENT AND THE ARMY

123. Government of the Kingdom. — There was no royal family in Rome, even in the time of the kingdom. The king was chosen by the people. He had almost absolute power. He was chief priest, supreme judge, and commander of the army. When the king went out he was preceded by servants called lictors, bearing bundles of rods and an ax, thus to impress the people with his power to flog or to put to death.

The Senate (from *senex*, an old man) was a body of elders who assisted the king and sanctioned his laws; but it had no power except what he granted it.

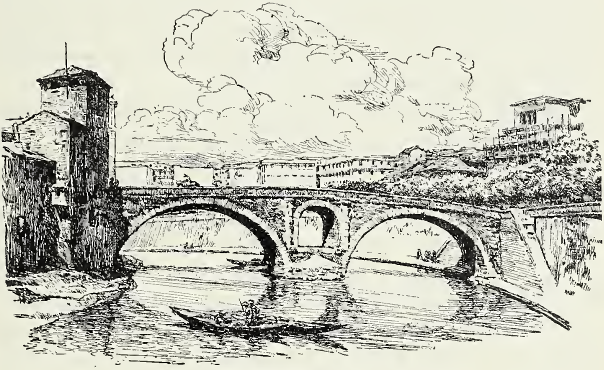
The Assembly of the people was called the *comitia curiata* (ko-mĭsh′ĭ-a kū-rĭ-ā′ta). It was composed of all the patricians capable of bearing arms. This body was called to meet at times to advise with the king concerning great questions of peace and war. Later there was a new kind of assembly formed of all the soldiers. They were divided into companies of 100 men, called centuries, and the new assembly was called the *comitia centuria′ta*.

124. Government under the Republic. — When the Roman people expelled Tarquinius Superbus, the last of the kings, they set up a republic (509 B.C.) and chose two consuls to wield the power formerly held by the king. These consuls were chosen not for life as the kings had been, but for one year only.

A dictator was sometimes appointed in time of great danger. His appointment was for six months only, but during that period he had absolute control of the city and the army.

The Roman Senate under the republic was composed of about 300 men, and at first all the senators were heads of patrician families. The Senate gained greatly by the downfall of the kingdom and it really became the chief governing power of Rome. In later times it was made up chiefly of ex-consuls and other ex-magistrates. The members served for life, and this fact gave them a great advantage over the consuls, who, serving for one year, could be called to account at the end of their term of service.

The principal assembly under the early republic was the *comitia centuriata*. It met on the Campus Martius (mar′shĭ-us), outside the city near the Tiber, where it elected the officers and passed laws, but its laws had to be ratified by the Senate before they became effective.



Fabrician Bridge over the Tiber

The first bridge across the Tiber at Rome, built of wood, was the one defended by Horatius. Many bridges were built later, but the Fabrician, which unites the city with an island in the Tiber, is the oldest stone bridge in the world still in use.

In later times, a new office was created called the censorship; two censors were chosen to fill this office for a term of five years. The censors had even greater power than the consuls. Every fifth year they numbered the people. All citizens were required to appear before them and under oath to tell the number of their children and their slaves and the amount of their property. After the census was taken the censors arranged for the great ceremony of purification. In large numbers the people assembled for this purpose once in five years on the Campus Martius. Here they were drawn up in order of battle and around them were led three animals, a bull, a ram, and a hog. These animals were then slain and their blood sprinkled on the people. Thus they were purified and reconciled to the gods.

The censors had the power to degrade a senator by striking his name from the list of senators, or to deprive a citizen of his vote. They were the guardians of public morals; they rebuked indigence in one and extravagance in another. The censors were, in fact, the masters of Rome.

125. **Rise of the Plebs.** — At first the great majority of the plebeians (sec. 122) were poor and lived outside the city. They served in the wars under patrician officers. Often their little farms were overrun by hostile armies while the patrician homes were protected by the city walls. If new lands were conquered they were divided among the patricians, and the plebs got nothing. On returning from the wars the plebs, finding their farms devastated, were obliged to borrow money from the patricians, and the interest rates were so high that often they could not pay. Then they were thrown into prison for debt, often into a dungeon.

At length the plebs felt that they could endure the oppression no longer, so they decided to leave Rome and found a city of their own. The legend tells us that they withdrew in large numbers to a hill on the banks of the A'nio, a little river that flows into the Tiber a few miles above Rome. This hill was ever after called *Mons Sa'cer*, Sacred Mountain. But the patricians persuaded them to return by promising to release all prisoners for debt and agreeing that tribunes, to be elected by the plebs, should have the power to forbid or "veto" unjust acts of a magistrate. This event took place, the Romans said, in 494 B.C., not long after the last king was driven out and the republic founded.

For more than a century there was occasional strife between these two classes. One of the tribunes, Licin'ius, secured the passage of a law by which the amount of land and the number of slaves that could be held by any man was limited. The purpose of the law was to relieve the oppression of the poor. This law dates from 367 B.C. It was known as the Licinian law. The plebeians were made eligible to one office after another, until at last they won a complete victory. They came to be recognized as equal to the patricians and the two formed one people. A new assembly, the *comitia tribu'ta*, in which all the people voted by districts or "local tribes," took over most of the lawmaking power from the *comitia centuriata.*

126. **Service in the Army.** — Rome was a nation of warriors. The army was the strength and support of the government. Every Roman citizen between the ages of seventeen and forty-five years was obliged to serve in the army if needed. It was said that each citizen owed his country twenty campaigns. A campaign in the early period was usually short, perhaps only a sudden dash into the territory of a neighboring city-state; but later a campaign was often long and arduous.

A soldier had to furnish his own arms and all equipment, and before the year 402 B.C. he served without pay. The poor were therefore shut out from the army. The old Roman considered it not a hardship, but a privilege, to serve his country in war. When an army was to be enrolled the citizens were called to assemble at the Capitol. As many as needed were then selected and those chosen took an oath to obey the general, to follow wherever he might lead, and to remain faithful until released from the oath.

127. **Divisions of the Army; Exercises.** — A Roman army was divided into legions. A legion was composed of 4200 men, 3000 of whom were heavy-armed troops and 1200 light-armed. The legions were made up chiefly of Roman citizens, but in later times they did not constitute the entire army of the republic, nor even half of it. To them were added the allies, as the subject peoples were called, and the allied troops, horse and foot, were generally more numerous than the citizen troops.

On the Campus Martius the young soldiers would gather in great numbers to exercise their bodies and drill in preparation for service in the field. They would run and leap, throw the javelin, and often swim across the Tiber.

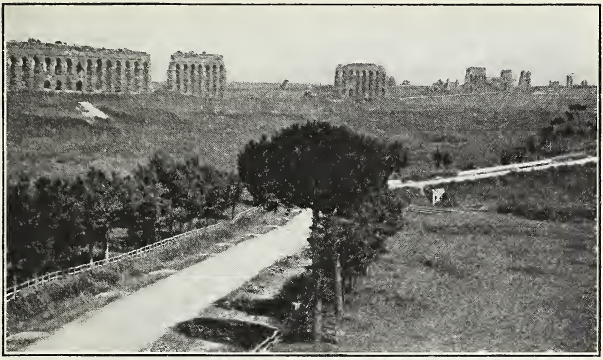
128. The Army in the Field. — The Roman soldier in active warfare wore a brass helmet on his head, carried a shield on his left arm, a coat of mail on his breast, and wore greaves on his legs. These were his defensive armor. His weapons were a short sword and often a javelin and a long lance. In addition to all these he carried utensils and rations for seventeen days. His entire burden was about sixty pounds.

When the army encamped for the night a square inclosure was measured off and around it a deep ditch was dug by the men. Into the bank of loose earth, which was thrown inward, stakes were driven. Protected by this moat and palisade, an army was safe from sudden attack by an enemy.

A legion was divided into companies called " man′iples " (from *manus*, hand, and *plenus*, full, a handful), each composed of 60 or 120 men. When engaged in battle the maniples were arranged in three lines with spaces between them. The front line, composed of younger men, engaged the enemy first. If defeated, it fell back and the second line rushed to the front, and in turn the third, which was made up of the best men of the army.

The discipline in a Roman army was very strict. The commanding general had power of life and death over all his men. A soldier who deserted was put to death if caught. He was bound to a post by the lictors and after being beaten with rods his head was cut off. If a body of troops deserted, they were decimated, that is, every tenth man was put to death, and the rest were forced to camp outside the palisade and to live on coarse barley bread.

After the Romans had conquered large territories, they built great military roads so that an army might move quickly from one part of their dominions to another. Stone slabs, gravel, and cement were used in road building, and so durable were the Roman roads that parts of them remain to this day. The most



Appian Way and Ruins of the Claudian Aqueduct

The Appian Way was a military road, built as far as possible in a straight line, cutting through hills and bridging ravines. It was constructed somewhat like our macadam roads, with a pavement of hard stone resting on several layers of smaller stones set in cement. The Claudian aqueduct was one of several conduits which carried water from mountain springs to Rome. Built between A.D. 38 and A.D. 52, it was a wonderful piece of engineering, the water being carried for miles in a cement-lined channel at the top of great arches of stone masonry, some of which are still standing.

famous of the Roman roads was the Ap′pian Way, which was begun by Appius Clau′dius in 312 B.C. It extended from Rome to Brundisium (brun-dĭsh′ĭ-um), in southern Italy, by way of Alba Longa and Cap′ua.

129. Rewards of Military Service. — In the early period the Roman soldier served without pay and furnished his own equipment, as we have seen. Later he received only a small salary, but there were other possible rewards that encouraged him to put forth his best efforts. There were banners, ornaments, and crowns of different sorts awarded for exceptional valor. One of the most highly prized, given for the saving of a comrade's life on the battlefield, was a crown of oak leaves called "the civic crown."

Other rewards, of greater utility, were sums of money and portions of land where a colony was founded, to say nothing of the plunder and booty taken from the enemy.

The greatest of all rewards was the Triumph. After a specially successful campaign the Senate would decree a triumph of the victorious commander and his army. This consisted of a triumphal march through the city of Rome to the temple of Jupiter on the Capitoline hill, where a sacrifice was offered.

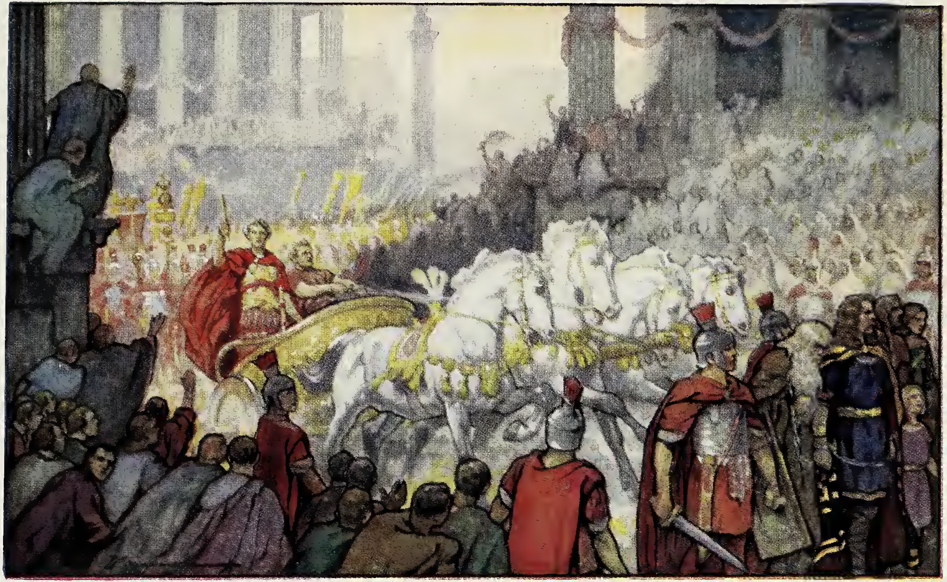
The most important figure in the procession was the commanding general, who rode in a gorgeous chariot of gold, and wore a crown of laurel. He was preceded by the senators and magistrates and followed by his army. In these triumphal processions were carried all sorts of trophies of victory, including captives taken in battle, even kings and commanders of armies. Great throngs of people who lined the streets and covered the housetops shouted their glad welcome to the returning soldiers and rejoiced with them over the victories they had won.

Questions and Topics. — I. For what is the modern world indebted to the Hebrews? the Greeks? the Romans? Describe the Italian peninsula. On what ground do we infer that the Greeks and Romans were descended from the same race? Tell what you can of the Etruscans. Relate some of the legends of early Rome. What is the difference between legend and history?

II. How does the Roman religion compare with that of Greece? How did March and January come to be so named? What fundamental difference between the religion of the Romans and that of our own times? Of whom did a Roman family consist? What was the father's authority? Compare the state of woman in Rome and in Athens. What did Roman children learn at school? Which is more important, learning to read and write, or learning morals and obedience?

III. What sort of body was the Roman Senate? How did the assembly of the people compare with your state legislature? What were the powers of consuls? the dictator? the censor? How did the Romans take a census? How do we and how often? Who were the plebs? the patricians? What class of Roman people served in the army? Describe a Roman camp. How did the Romans build roads? Does it pay to build expensive roads? Why? Name the rewards of Roman military service. Describe a Roman triumph.

For Further Reading. — Guhl and Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans.* Fowler, *City-State of the Greeks and Romans.* Abbott, *Roman Political Institutions.*



A Roman Triumph

CHAPTER X

ROMAN CONQUESTS

I. Conquest of Italy

130. War with the Æquians. — There was in Rome a temple to the double-faced god Janus (sec. 120). The gates of this temple remained open while the city was at war, and were closed in time of peace. In five centuries these gates were closed but once, and then only for a few years. More than two hundred years were required for the conquest of Italy. Only a brief space in this book can be given to these Italian wars.

The war with the Æ′quians is remembered because of the story of Cincinna′tus. The Æquians (an Italian people living on the upper Anio River) were sorely pressing the Roman army, which had been surrounded and was in danger of capture (458 B.C.). One of the consuls hastened to the Senate and suggested that a dictator be appointed. Who should it be? Cincinnatus, the veteran of many wars. The Senate so decreed, and messengers were sent to find Cincinnatus. They found him at work on his little four-acre farm across the Tiber. Hastening to the city, the old hero raised an army, went against the enemy, won a complete victory, returned to the city, and was ready to go back to his farm sixteen days after he had left it.

This story belongs to the legendary period and can hardly be accepted as historic.

131. Burning of Rome by the Gauls. — A stream of Gauls had poured through the Alpine passes into the Po Valley, which became known as Cisal′pine Gaul. From here they advanced into Etruria and threatened Rome. They were roving barbarians whose chief business was war. It was said that their harsh music, when they marched, filled the air with a horrible din. In the year 390 B.C. they advanced on Rome and utterly defeated a Roman army that came out to meet them. Entering the city, they sacked and burned it, except the citadel on the Capitoline hill, which they failed to capture. At length Camil′lus, a famous commander, was made dictator, and he succeeded in driving the Gauls from Rome. The city was soon rebuilt, and it was not long before it became again the leading city of Italy.

132. The Samnite Wars. — Sam′nium was a mountainous country of central Italy, east of Latium. Its people, called Samnites (săm′nīts), were hardy mountaineers of the Italian race, brave and strong in battle. Trouble arose between Rome and Samnium, war broke out, and continued for half a century (343–290 B.C.). Owing to the intervals of peace this long contest was divided into the First, Second, and Third Samnite Wars.

The most memorable event of these wars was the entrapping and capture by the Samnites of a whole Roman army of 40,000 men at the Caudine (kô′dĭn[1]) Forks, a pass in the Apennines (321 B.C.). The entire army was deprived of its arms and obliged to pass under the yoke,[2] the most humiliating thing that could come to a Roman soldier. The Romans, however, soon recovered from this disaster, raised new armies, and when peace was proclaimed in 290 B.C. Samnium was made a dependency of Rome.

133. Tarentum and Pyrrhus. — After the close of the long wars with Samnium, Rome soon became supreme in all central and southern Italy, except that Taren′tum, a fine Greek city, was still free. A quarrel soon arose and Rome declared war on Tarentum. The people of that city called on Pyrrhus to aid them against the all-conquering City of the Seven Hills. Pyrrhus was king of Epirus, the region west of Macedonia, and was a kinsman of Alexander the Great. Anxious for conquest, the king readily responded and soon landed at Tarentum with 25,000 men and a number of elephants (280 B.C.).

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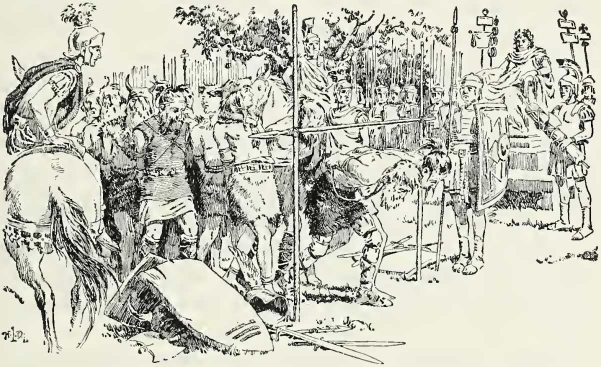
[1] For diacritical marks, see first page of the index.

[2] A yoke was made of three spears, two set upright in the ground and a third laid across the top.

At the battle of Heracle'a the Roman legions were to meet the Macedonian phalanx for the first time. The Romans fought with their usual bravery and slew great numbers of the Greeks, but when Pyrrhus at the right moment charged with his elephants, the Romans fled, like frightened quail, in all directions. They could fight men, on foot or on horseback, but these fearful pachyderms were too much for them.



ROMANS COMPELLING CAPTIVES TO PASS UNDER THE YOKE

Our English word subjugate is derived from the Latin words *sub*, under, and *jugum*, yoke.

Pyrrhus was a very able warrior, a man of fine personality and generous spirit. Again he met the Romans in battle and defeated them, but his losses were so heavy that he exclaimed that another such victory would ruin him. We still speak of a victory that is too dearly bought as a "Pyrrhic victory." In a third battle he was defeated and soon thereafter he returned to his own country. This left Tarentum without adequate defense, and three years later (272 B.C.) the city surrendered to Rome.

134. **Government of United Italy.** — After Tarentum had yielded, Roman authority was undisputed in all Italy from the

Apennines and the little river Ru'bicon, just south of the Po Valley, to the farthest shores of the peninsula.

The people of Italy were now divided into two classes — the Roman citizens and the allies or foreigners.

The allies, who comprised the majority of the people of Italy, had no rights of citizenship. They were permitted to retain their local government and were not required to pay tribute. But they were not allowed to wage war, to coin money, or to have any foreign relations, and moreover they were required to furnish men for the Roman army and ships for the navy.

Two things are specially noticeable in Rome's occupation and government of Italy at this time:

1. Her system of governing her cities and allies, permitting each to govern itself while owing allegiance to a larger union, was a striking model of our own American federal government of to-day. Our forefathers, in forming our Union, used the same great principle of federation that was employed by ancient Rome. There was, however, one great difference: the allies were not represented in the central government; the city of Rome was the mistress of Italy.

2. However we may deplore the domination of a strong state over weak ones, we must agree that the condition of the people of Italy was far better after the Roman conquest than before, as it put a stop to their incessant wars with one another. A similar instance is found in the occupation of India by England. Before that occupation the people of India were constantly fighting one another; since then they have been comparatively peaceful.

II. THE PUNIC WARS (264–146 B.C.)

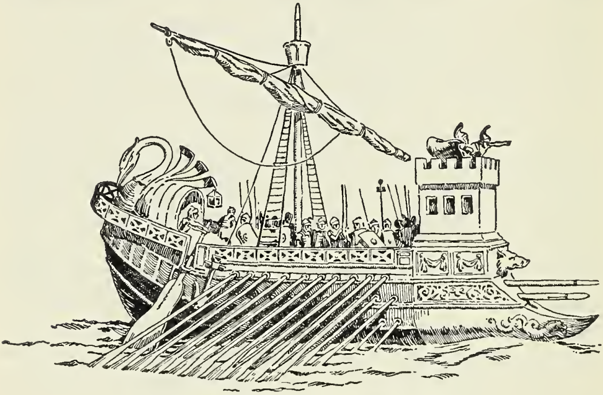
135. Carthage. — The city of Carthage was founded by the Phœnicians about 850 B.C. It was situated in the northernmost part of Africa. According to the legend the founder was Queen Dido, a daughter of a king of Tyre. As the centuries passed Carthage grew into an empire, one of the strongest of antiquity, and far surpassed the motherland from which she had sprung. Her high-breasted ships plowed the Mediterranean from shore to shore and swept through the Strait of Gibraltar into the Atlantic Ocean. In all the ancient world there was no prouder city than Carthage. Her government was similar to that of Rome, except that it was less democratic. Her religion was the religion of Ba'al worship, borrowed from Phœnicia.

136. Carthage and Rome. — The two great powers of the Mediterranean were Carthage and Rome. For centuries they scarcely knew each other. Then for a time they were friendly, but at last they came into deadly conflict. The two rival nations were nearly equal in strength, each controlling about five million population. The strength of Carthage lay in her wealth and her sea power; the strength of Rome lay in her sturdy citizenship and the efficiency of her army. Carthage had greater leaders than Rome, but her armies were mercenary and wanting in the burning patriotism that characterized the men of Rome.

Rome was without a navy; Carthage controlled the Mediterranean, and her people boasted that a Roman scarcely dared wash his hands in the sea without her consent. But such a condition was not to continue. After the first war broke out, the Romans found a stranded Carthaginian ship and, taking it as a model, built a fleet within a few months. While it was building they had their "sailors" practice by sitting on benches on shore and rowing in the sand. Strange to say, the Romans won in their first sea fight with Carthage.

It was inevitable that these two rival powers should come into conflict for the leadership in Mediterranean lands. Beginning in 264 B.C., they engaged in mortal combat and continued, with intervals of peace, for 118 years, till one of the great rivals utterly crushed and annihilated the other. This long contest is known as the First, Second, and Third Punic Wars. The word Punic means Phœnician.

137. The First Punic War (264–241 B.C.). — The island of Sicily is like a great stepping stone in the Mediterranean between southern Italy and the African shore, at the narrowest part of that great sea. Sicily was the prize of the First Punic War. The armies of the two cities met first in this island, but the Romans later carried the war into Africa. Reg′ulus, one of the consuls, landed on the African coast with two legions and laid waste the country. Later he was defeated and taken prisoner.



A Roman Trireme (Reconstruction)

The trireme was planned for fighting at close quarters. The bow was strongly built, to withstand the shock when its powerful metal ram pierced the side of an enemy ship. The ram protruded from below the raised deck or castle tower, at the front, the part of a ship now known as the forecastle. Sometimes the warship had one sail, often two or more. Back of the tower was a long deck for light-armed soldiers, with places for the oarsmen below. The rowers were arranged about as in the Greek trireme (secs. 95 and 98). Near the stern was a deckhouse for the captain, with seats for the steersmen who guided the ship with sweeps hanging one from each side. In front of the stern post a carved ornament, the "goose-head," symbolized the floating powers of the ship. In later times, even down to the nineteenth century, vessels with several banks of oars, called galleys, were rowed by captives and prisoners known as galley slaves.

For some years Regulus was held a prisoner. At length when the Carthaginians wished to make peace they sent Regulus to Rome on his promise that he would return to Carthage in case the war continued. Regulus proceeded to Rome and persuaded the Senate to continue the war and *not* to accept the offer of the Carthaginians. He then kept his promise and returned a prisoner to Carthage in spite of the pleadings and tears of his family and friends. It was said that he was put to a cruel death on his return to Carthage. This story may not be true, but it illustrates the lofty patriotism of the Roman people.

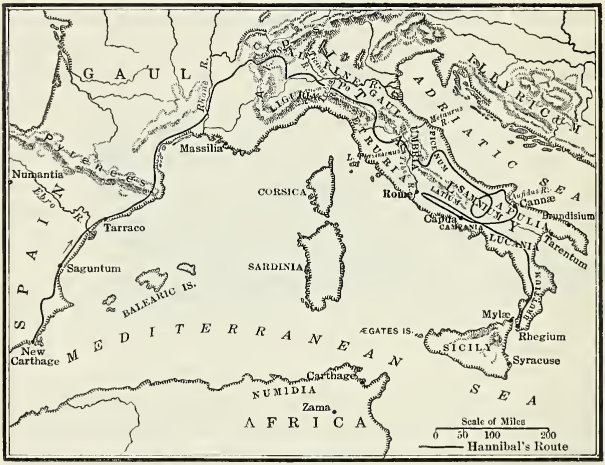
The war dragged on for many years. A great leader arose in Carthage, named Hamil′car Barca. For six years, with a small army, this man held Rome at bay in southern Sicily, defeating every army sent against him. But the Romans defeated their enemy on the sea, and Carthage was forced to sue for peace.

It was granted on hard terms. Sicily was to belong to Rome and thus that island became the first of Roman provinces. Carthage was required to pay Rome 3200 talents (nearly $4,000,000) in the course of ten years and to release all prisoners. Thus ended the first of the Punic Wars.

138. Between the Two Wars; the Flaminian Way. — The First Punic War, twenty-three years in duration, was followed by twenty-three years of peace. But they were years of great activity in Rome and Carthage. It was clearly foreseen that war would come again. It was at this time that Rome extended her power into the Po Valley. The Roman leader was Ga′ius Flamin′ius, a tribune of the people and later consul, one of the greatest statesmen of his time. He conquered the Gauls and extended the Roman power to the base of the Alps (222 B.C.).

Flaminius projected the great road that was given his name, the Flaminian Way. It extended from Rome across the peninsula to the Adriatic Sea and far into the north. For the movement of armies and supplies in time of war and of food supplies in time of peace this great highway, like the Appian Way extending southeast (sec. 128), was of priceless value to Rome.

139. Hamilcar and Hannibal. — The two greatest names in Carthaginian history are the names of Hamilcar and Han′nibal, father and son. These two commanding figures remind us of Philip and Alexander of Macedonia. Philip was the strongest character that had ever risen in Macedonia, until his fame was far outshone by that of his more famous son. Likewise the Carthaginian Hamilcar, powerful leader that he was, cannot be mentioned in the same class with the marvelous youth on whose shoulders his mantle fell.


G A U L
Rhone R.
CISALPINE GAUL
LIGURIA
Ticinus R.
Po R.
ETRURIA
UMBRIA
PICENUM
Metaurus R.
L. Trasimenus
Tiber R.
Rome
LATIUM
SAMNIUM
APULIA
Aufidus R.
Cannæ
Brundisium
Capua
CAMPANIA
LUCANIA
Tarentum
BRUTTIUM
ADRIATIC SEA
ILLYRICUM
Massilia
Numantia
Pyrenees
Ebro R.
SPAIN
Tarraco
Saguntum
BALEARIC IS.
New Carthage
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CORSICA
SARDINIA
ÆGATES IS.
SICILY
Mylæ
Rhegium
Syracuse
Carthage
NUMIDIA
Zama
A F R I C A
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 200
Hannibal's Route

THE PUNIC WARS

The one great aim and purpose in the life of Hamilcar was to defeat and humble the city on the Tiber. It is said that he took his little son Hannibal, when the boy was nine years of age, to the altar of the gods and had him solemnly swear eternal enmity against Rome. Hannibal kept his oath and he became the greatest military commander of antiquity, not even excepting Alexander the Great. At the age of twenty-six, his father having been slain in battle, Hannibal was chosen commander. He accepted the commission and henceforth he was the soul of the Carthaginian army.

As the historian Polyb'ius informs us, Hannibal was a man of dauntless courage, of the utmost prudence and patience. He endured hunger and cold alike, he worked day and night, and slept only when there was nothing else to do. All his energies were bent to the one great purpose of his life, the humiliation of Rome. To provoke that city to war he besieged and captured the Spanish town Sagun'tum, which was in alliance with Rome.

The Roman Senate sent Quintus Fa'bius to Carthage to demand that Hannibal be surrendered. The demand was refused. Fabius held his toga in a double fold and cried, "I give you peace or war. Which will you have?" "Which you will," was the answer. "Then it is war," he declared, shaking out the fold of his toga to mean war.

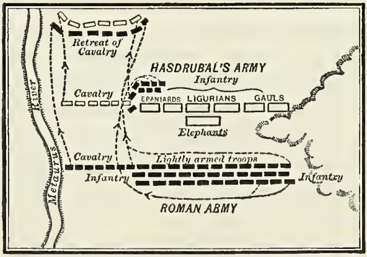
140. Beginnings of the Second Punic War; Hannibal Crosses the Alps (218 B.C.). — The great Carthaginian commander determined to carry the war into Italy. But Carthage was weaker than Rome on the sea, so he led his army from Spain into Italy by land. With 50,000 foot, 9000 cavalry, and 37 war elephants, he set out on his perilous journey. The army had to encounter the wild tribes of the mountains, terrific winter storms of the Alps, and vast fields of snow. Hundreds, perhaps thousands, of the men and horses lost their balance and rolled down the mighty precipices to death. When Hannibal reached the Po Valley, half his army had perished. The Romans were astonished at the sudden arrival of Hannibal in the north. The Roman consul Scipio (sĭp'ĭ-ō) met the invaders on the Tici'nus, a branch of the Po, and was defeated. A little later another Roman army, led by another consul, was utterly crushed on the banks of the river Tre'bia. The Gauls, who had recently been conquered by Rome, now joined Hannibal and added many thousands of men to his army. The next year (217 B.C.) the popular statesman, Flaminius, was defeated and slain and his army was annihilated at the battle of Lake Trasime'nus, in Etruria.

141. Fabius; the Battle of Cannæ. — The disaster at Trasimenus caused great lamentation in Rome. Fabius was now appointed dictator. His policy was to annoy Hannibal and wear him out without meeting him in any great battle. This he did for many months, until the Roman people grew impatient with his methods and clamored for his recall. His policy of caution is known as the Fabian policy.

In 216 B.C. the Romans sent an army of 80,000 men against Hannibal, whose army numbered 50,000. The Roman army, commanded by the consul Varro, met the Carthaginians at Cannæ, in southern Italy. The result was apparently decisive. The great Carthaginian commander crushed and almost annihilated this mighty Roman army. The Romans were huddled together like sheep and cut down by thousands by Hannibal's Numidian cavalry.

The fortunes of Rome were now at the lowest ebb. The Romans were overwhelmed with grief when the news of Cannæ flew to the city. Some of their allies turned against them, and it was feared that Hannibal would march upon Rome. Hannibal, however, could not move at once to invest the city; the Romans became more calm, and again, as in the earlier war, their patriotism rose to its best. They refused to despair; they were determined to fight on. Soon the tide of war turned in their favor.

The decisive victory of the Romans came with the destruction of Has'drubal and his army at the battle of the Metaurus. Hasdrubal was Hannibal's brother. Eluding the Roman armies in Spain, he crossed the Alps as Hannibal had done and appeared in the Po Valley. On the banks of the Metau'rus River near the coast of the Adriatic he met a Roman army, and the battle there fought (207 B.C.) has been named one of the decisive battles of



Battle of the Metaurus

the world, because it marked the turning of the tide in the Second Punic War.[1] Hasdrubal was slain and his army was annihilated.

Hannibal eagerly awaited the coming of his brother, but the first news he received came to him when his brother's head was thrown into the Carthaginian camp. Hannibal saw that his career was doomed, and he exclaimed, "O Carthage, I see thy fate!"

142. The Battle of Zama; End of the War. — The Romans even now were unwilling to attack Hannibal in southern Italy, but they found another way to get him out of the country. A Roman army was sent to Africa to threaten Carthage. The plan was effective. Carthage recalled Hannibal to defend the city. Rome had a splendid army commanded by the younger Scipio, son of the consul whom Hannibal had defeated at the Ticinus. Hannibal had an inferior army. The two came together in the battle of Za'ma, near Carthage, and Hannibal, for the first and only time in his life, suffered defeat (202 B.C.). Scipio, for this splendid victory, was named by the Roman Senate Scipio Africa'nus.

Carthage could do nothing more after the defeat of Hannibal's army at Zama. For several years past everything had gone wrong with the Carthaginians. Hannibal's brother had been defeated and slain in Italy; Capua and Syracuse, which had gone over to Carthage, were retaken by Rome. Spain also was lost, and now added to all these disasters was the defeat of the great commander himself at Zama. Carthage sued for peace, and Rome granted her prayer on merciless terms.

Carthage was required (1) to pay Rome 200 talents ($250,000) a year for fifty years; (2) to give up all claim to Spain and the islands of the Mediterranean; (3) to destroy all her ships except ten small ones; and (4) to promise not to make war without the consent of Rome.

With a heavy heart Hannibal accepted these terms and set about building up his ruined city. But some years later Rome, in the belief that Hannibal was plotting another war, demanded his surrender. He fled into Syria and later to Asia Minor, and finally, it was said, committed suicide. Such was the end of Hannibal — the greatest commander in the history of the world, unless we except Napoleon Bonaparte.

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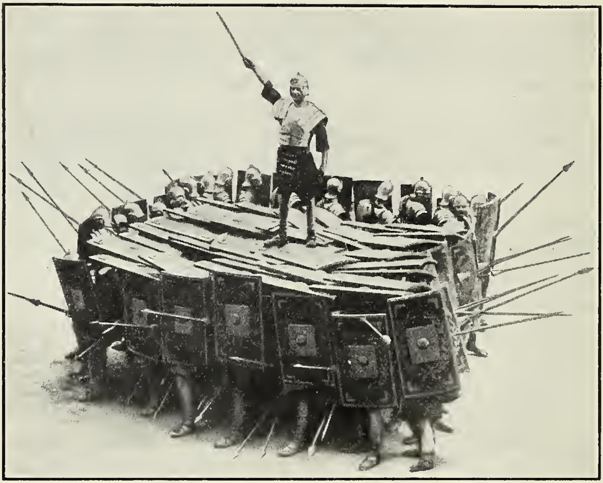
[1] See Creasy's *Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.*



THE TORTOISE FORMATION — THE ANCIENT FORERUNNER OF THE MODERN "TANK"

Posed by English guardsmen acting the part of Roman soldiers. When fortifications were attacked, the heavy-armed soldiers held their shields arranged in a formation known as the *testudo*, or tortoise, for protection from hostile weapons.

143. **The Third Punic War** (149–146 B.C.). — Half a century passed after Zama. Carthage was again growing rich, and Rome was getting jealous. Rome was also becoming more covetous and more cruel. Nothing was more disturbing to Roman serenity than the growing prosperity of the African city. Even Ca'to the Censor, known for his honesty and simplicity of life, declared in the Senate, at the end of every speech he made, "*Delenda est*

Cartha'go " (Carthage must be destroyed). This was the sentiment of the whole Roman people, but a pretext had to be found for attacking the rival city. It came when Carthage, in self-defense but without the consent of Rome, sent a force against the Numidians.

This was enough. Rome was ready now to go to any length to destroy her prosperous rival. She demanded that Carthage deliver to Rome 300 of the children of her nobles as hostages — and it was done. Then she demanded that the Carthaginians give up all their arms. Even this was complied with. Finally, Rome decreed that Carthage itself be abandoned and that the people build another city ten miles from the sea.

This cruel demand was too much. The people saw their mistake in having given up the hostages and their arms They resolved to resist, to fight to the bitter end. The gates of the city were closed, and men and women worked day and night manufacturing arms. Soon the Roman army came, led by Scipio Æmilia'nus, adopted grandson of Scipio Africanus, the hero of Zama. The siege was long and deadly. The Carthaginians perished in unnumbered thousands. No people ever defended their homes with greater heroism. But at last, after a siege of many months, the Romans scaled the walls and took the city by storm. The remaining inhabitants were made slaves, the city was burned to the ground, and the spot on which had stood this greatest of Phœnician cities, the wealthiest city of antiquity, became a scene of ruin and desolation.

III. CONQUEST OF MEDITERRANEAN LANDS

144. Motives of Conquest. — The City of the Seven Hills conquered the world. But it was not through any purpose or design that Rome came to be the ruler of nearly all civilized nations. One conquest led to another, and some of her wars were not of her own making. One incentive of warfare was that a magistrate in command of the army would wage war in order to win popularity and perhaps secure the honors of a triumph, the prize of all prizes to the Roman commander. Many of the leading statesmen of Rome were first victorious generals.

Again, nearly all classes in Rome had an interest in conquest. Merchants and bankers found new fields to exploit in the conquered lands, and the soldiers shared in the booty captured in war. Rome, therefore, without any plan for conquering the world, simply continued her campaigns, for glory and for profit, until there was nothing else worth conquering and she was mistress of the world.

145. The Macedonian Wars. — On the death of Alexander the Great his mighty empire was divided, as we have seen (sec. 115), among his generals. They set up various kingdoms, as Egypt, Syria, and Macedonia. These all eventually came under the sway of Rome, and the first to yield was Macedonia.

There were three Macedonian wars, beginning in 215 B.C. and ending in 168 B.C., covering a period of 47 years. In this series of wars Rome not only subdued all Macedonia and later made it a Roman province, but defeated Syria also. It was in 190 B.C. that for the first time the Roman legions fought on the soil of Asia and here they proved their superiority, as they had done in Europe.

146. Final Conquest of Greece (146 B.C.). — At the time of the Third Macedonian War at least a thousand of the leading Greeks were forcibly carried to Italy, and among them was the famous historian Polybius. After sixteen years they were released and, returning to Greece, led the Greeks to revolt against Roman oppression. The revolt had its center at Corinth. The city was soon enveloped with a Roman army under the consul Mum'mius. The horrors and cruelties of the destruction of Carthage were equaled, if not surpassed, at Corinth. The city was utterly destroyed, the men were massacred and the women and children sold into slavery. Many treasures of art and sculpture were destroyed, and many were carried to Rome. The singular taste of the consul Mummius, as an art critic, was shown by his warning to the sailors that if they destroyed any of the fine paintings or statues, "they must replace them with others just as good."

It will be noticed that this year, which marks the end of Greek freedom, 146 B.C., is the same as that in which Carthage was destroyed — a memorable year in the history of Rome.

147. **Other Conquests.** — During the second century before our era the power of Rome had extended rapidly beyond the sea. In addition to the acquisitions already mentioned, Illyr′icum, a country stretching along the Adriatic northwest of Macedonia, became a Roman province about the time of the Second Macedonian War.

Per′gamum, a flourishing country in western Asia Minor, became a Roman province in 135 B.C. This was a peaceful acquisition, as the dying king of the country bequeathed his kingdom to the Roman people. It was the first Roman province in Asia.

The one spot in the world that Rome found most difficult to conquer was Spain, which had been formed into two Roman provinces. Here the mountain tribes fought like demons and destroyed one Roman army after another. The women fought along with the men and sometimes to escape capture they would kill their children and themselves. Viri′athus in the western part, now Portugal, proved an unconquerable foe. For nine years he held the mountain fastnesses and defeated every force sent against him. It was only by assassination that the Romans managed to get rid of him and to conquer his tribe.

Numantia (nu-măn′shĭ-a) was a Spanish town that fought the Romans heroically and desperately for ten years, defeating several Roman armies. At last it was captured by Scipio Æmilianus (133 B.C.) and, like Carthage and Corinth, was blotted from the face of the earth. As the town was about to be taken the people fell to committing suicide and there were but fifty left to grace the triumph of the conqueror in the streets of Rome.

SIDE TALK

Hannibal. — Most writers of ancient history agree that Hannibal was the ablest commander of men known to history. His holding together in Italy a great army composed of men of many nationalities and languages, often in a condition bordering on want, for many long years, indicates a strength of leadership unrivaled. Alexander the Great had a splendid army of picked troops and his enemies were for the most part effeminate Asiatics. Caesar with the choicest Roman legions won his battles against the half-civilized Gauls. Napoleon, who comes nearest to measuring up to the standard of the Carthaginian, had a great nation at his back and his army was stimulated by the enthusiasm of the Revolution. On the other hand, Hannibal's army was largely composed of barbarians — Gauls, Spaniards, Libyans, and Numidians — who had no quarrel with Rome and little interest in Carthage. Their allegiance rested on their devotion to their wonderful commander. Moreover, Hannibal was always cramped by want of support from home, and his conflict was against the greatest military nation in the world. In spite of all this, Hannibal's transcendent genius was such that, with this motley army, he grappled with Rome on her own soil, marched up and down the Italian peninsula at will for fifteen years, defeating every army that dared to measure swords with him. In the history of human warfare there is no other record to compare with this.

Questions and Topics. — I. What can you tell of the two-faced Janus? of Cincinnatus? Who were the Samnites? How did Rome govern the rest of Italy? What principle did our government adopt from ancient Rome?

II. Tell what you know of Carthage. Compare Rome and Carthage. What was the prize of the First Punic War? Do you admire the action of Regulus? How did the Romans make roads? Describe the Flaminian Way. What oath did Hannibal take as a boy? Describe Hannibal's passage of the Alps; Cannæ. What is meant by the Fabian policy? How was Hannibal at last overcome? What were the permanent effects of the Punic Wars?

III. What were the motives of Roman conquest? Describe the destruction of Corinth. Why were the Greeks not able to stand before the Romans in war?

Events and Dates. — End of the Samnite War, 290 B.C. War with Pyrrhus, 280 B.C. Italy united under the government of Rome. First Punic War begins, 264 B.C. Hannibal crosses the Alps, 218 B.C. Battle of Metaurus, 207 B.C. Carthage destroyed, end of Third Punic War, 146 B.C. Final conquest of Greece, 146 B.C.

For Further Reading. — Botsford, *History of Rome*. Dodge, *Hannibal: History of the Art of War*. Bryant, *Short History of Rome for Schools*. Morey, *Ancient Peoples*.

CHAPTER XI

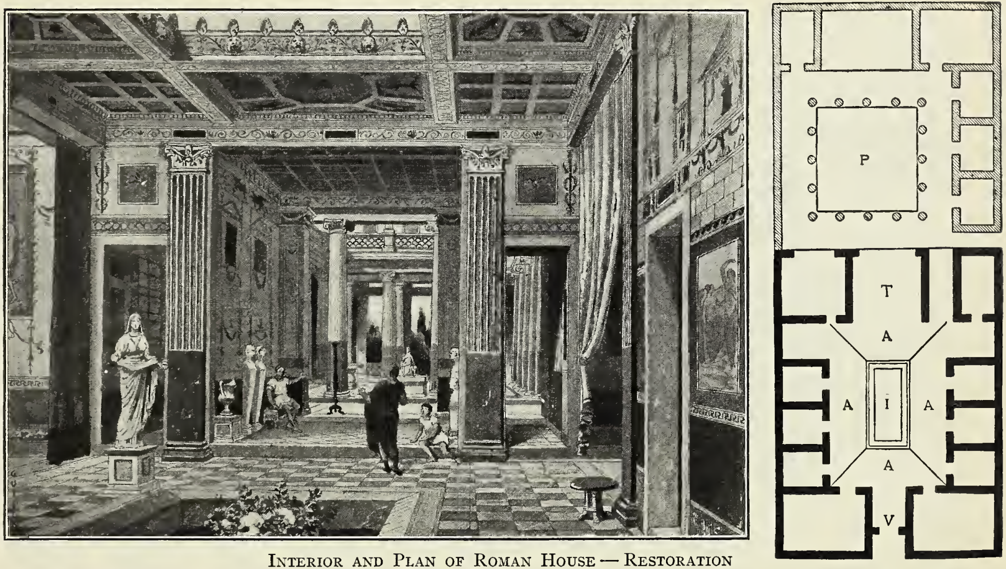
LIFE AND SOCIETY IN ROME

I. CHANGE IN ROMAN CUSTOMS

148. Effect of the Conquests. — In the old days of the early republic the Roman people were a nation of small farmers, crude and simple and contented. Their one-story and one-room farm houses dotted the plains and hillsides of Latium and Etruria. They wore coarse, loose clothing and sandals, men and women alike, without head covering or stockings. They raised grain and live stock, and many of the hills were covered with olive trees.

Cato the Censor was a type of the old-time Roman. He worked and ate with his slaves; he bitterly upbraided the Scipios for their extravagance, and all his life he fought against the changes that were steadily taking place in Roman customs. Another of this type was Cu′rius, commander in the Samnite Wars. One day as he sat on a bench eating beans from a wooden bowl, he was approached by envoys of the enemy and offered a bribe. "Go and tell the Samnites," he said, "that Curius prefers commanding those who have gold to having it himself." In the city were many industries, but life was almost as simple there as in the rural districts.

Two hundred years of foreign conquest wrought a wonderful change in Roman life and manners. Wealth flowed into the city from the conquered provinces and demoralized the people. The small farms and simple rural homes were replaced by great estates and costly palaces. The houses of the rich were adorned with mosaics and frescoes and furnished with baths. The coarse and frugal meal of the early farmer was replaced by feasts of the rarest dainties and delicacies from all parts of the earth. So



INTERIOR AND PLAN OF ROMAN HOUSE — RESTORATION

V, Vestibulum (Entrance). *A*, Atrium (Reception Room). *I*, Impluvium (Basin in floor). *T*, Tablinum (A room whose purposes are not certain, at the right and left of which are passages). *P*, Peristylium (Open court surrounded by colonnades; the living quarters of the family). Small sleeping rooms opened off the atrium; at the rear of the house was the Hortus (Garden).

much for the rich, but the poor became poorer. The long ravages of Hannibal in Italy ruined thousands of farmers. The wars in Spain and the East took great numbers of farmers from their homes for years at a time, and when they returned many of them found their homes broken up.

The patricians and plebs of the olden times had merged into one class as we have seen (sec. 125). But after the foreign wars other social lines came to be sharply drawn; there were then four classes of people:

1. The new Nobility, composed of wealthy men who filled the chief offices, especially the seats of the Senate, and managed the government.

2. The Equites (ĕk′wĭ-tēz), or knights, men of large fortunes who did not attain senatorial dignity.

3. The great masses of the people, many of whom were paupers, some because they preferred a life of idleness, others because, ejected from their farms or discharged from the army, they could find no employment.

4. The slaves, the most numerous class of all. Great numbers of captives taken in war were sold into slavery, the usual price being from sixty to a hundred dollars.

149. How Greece Conquered Rome. — As noted above, the foreign conquests had for the most part a corrupting effect on the Roman people, but here is a notable exception. Thousands of Greeks were carried to Italy after the subjugation of their own country. The culture, the civilization of the Greeks was far superior to that of the Romans. These transported Greeks therefore became the teachers and models for the Romans.

Nothing finer can be said of the Roman people than the fact that when they conquered a people with a civilization better than their own, they did not attempt to crush and destroy it, they imitated and absorbed it. Viewed from this standpoint, the conquest of Greece was of vast importance to the future of the world, for if Rome was to rule the world, Rome needed to be refined and educated, and only the Greeks could accomplish this.

It became the fashion for the rich Romans to have Greek tutors for their children. Early Roman literature was built upon Greek literature. A Greek slave, Androni′cus, translated many Greek poems into Latin, and some of these were used in the Roman schools. Roman art, sculpture, and architecture were copied after Greek models. Thus it will be seen what the poet Horace meant when he said that Rome the conqueror was being conquered by the civilization of the Greeks.

II. Reforms of the Gracchi

150. Cornelia's Jewels. — One day as the great Scipio Africanus, the conqueror of Hannibal and the most famous of a famous family, sat at a feast, he was approached by friends of a young plebeian soldier named Gracchus (grăk′us) asking the hand of his daughter Cornelia in marriage. Scipio knew young Gracchus to be one of the manliest of men and gave his consent. When Scipio returned to his home and told his wife that he had bestowed their daughter in marriage, she was much disturbed and upbraided him, but when he told her that the lucky young man was Gracchus, she was pleased and declared that no other man in Rome was worthy of such a gift.

The young couple were married. Years passed and Cornelia was a widow, with two little boys. She took great pride in her sons and refused many offers of marriage in order to devote her time to their education. When some matrons exhibited to her their jewels and asked that they might see hers, she pointed to her boys and said, " These are my jewels."

The elder of the Gracchus brothers was named Tibe′rius, and the younger Gaius. As they grew to manhood their mother urged them to do something worthy of their country, saying that she was known as the daughter of Scipio, but would prefer to be known as the mother of the Gracchi.[1]

151. Tiberius Gracchus and the Agrarian Laws. — Tiberius served in the wars in Spain, and as he passed through Etruria his heart was moved at the great numbers of homeless farmers who had been driven from their lands by rich landowners. The owner of a little farm would return from a long war in which he had faithfully served his country, only to find the farm sold or mortgaged so heavily that he could not pay the debt. He could not then find employment, for the work of the rich was done by slaves. He could do nothing but go to the city and join the idle crowd of paupers or wander about with his family until they starved.

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[1] Gracchi (grăk′ī) is the plural of Gracchus.

"The poor have fought to maintain the luxury of the rich," declared Tiberius Gracchus, "while they do not possess a clod of earth that they may call their own."

Later Tiberius was elected tribune, and he set himself the task of bringing about a greatly needed reform. He determined to revive the old Licinian law (sec. 125) which forbade any one to possess more than 300 acres of the public lands. Such a law restricting the ownership of land is called an agra′rian law, from the Latin word *ager*, land. The Licinian law had long been disregarded; the great landlords had immense estates, and large numbers of the poor had been driven from their homes.

Tiberius succeeded in restoring and enforcing this law, but in doing so he awakened the implacable hatred of the rich. Most of the senators were large landholders, and some of them stirred up a riot in which three hundred men were killed. Tiberius Gracchus was among the slain (133 B.C.). This was the beginning of civil war in Rome. During the next century the streets of the city were again and again to flow with human blood.

152. Gaius Gracchus. — A few years later Gaius Gracchus entered public life as tribune and took up the cause in which his brother had given his life. Gaius was perhaps the abler of the brothers. He was the greatest orator of his time, and must be named among the leading statesmen that Rome produced. Not only did he aid in carrying out the agrarian law, restored by Tiberius; he also addressed himself to a greater task.

The Roman Senate, which had almost entire control of the government, was a corrupt body, and Gaius determined to weaken it. He succeeded in taking from the Senate some of its powers and in doing so he made that body bitterly hostile to him. Therefore when he stood for reëlection as tribune the Senate determined to defeat him at all hazards. It won the fickle people away from him by empty promises, and Gaius lost the election. He then unwisely resorted to violence. Civil war was the result, and in a great riot, 121 B.C., 3000 men lost their lives; among them was Gaius Gracchus.

Rome produced no better men than the Gracchi. They died in the cause of the downtrodden masses, and though their reforms were not permanent, they were long remembered for their noble sacrifice.

III. THE ROMAN PROVINCES

153. Government of the Provinces. — When Rome conquered the rest of Italy the various Italian tribes, though not citizens, were made "allies" (sec. 134). They were required to furnish ships and soldiers to Rome, but not to pay tribute. It was different with the provinces.

The provinces were conquered lands outside Italy. The first of the provinces was Sicily, acquired in 241 B.C., at the close of the First Punic War. At the time of Tiberius Gracchus there were seven Roman provinces and a century later there were seventeen.[1] These conquered lands were governed by the authority of Rome, not for the good of the inhabitants, but for the benefit of the conquerors.

The governor of a province was usually a consul or a prætor (judge) whose term of office at Rome had expired. He was then called a proconsul or proprætor. The governor had absolute power. He had an army which he commanded as he pleased, and if he chose to play the tyrant there was none to stay his hand.

154. Tyranny of the Provincial Governors. — A governor held his office usually for one year only. During that year he had to make his fortune, and there was nothing modest about the size of it when made. A grasping proconsul (and most of them were grasping) had many ways of wringing money from his province. A city, for example, would pay him a large sum of money in order to be exempt from having soldiers quartered within it. The proconsul had the power of life and death, and many a rich man paid heavily for exemption from arrest whether he was guilty of wrongdoing or not.

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[1] The provinces in 44 B.C. are shown on the map facing page 177.

The most notorious of the proconsuls was Verres (vĕr'ēz), governor of Sicily (73–71 B.C.). He plundered the people of that island to his heart's content. He forced them to give up their money and their treasures of art and sculpture, the accumulation of centuries of Greek culture. Verres boasted that his fortune was so great that if he were put on trial for his extortion he could afford to spend two thirds of it in bribing the judges and have an abundance left. He was put on trial, and Cicero (sĭs'er-ō), Rome's greatest orator, was the prosecutor. Several of Cicero's greatest orations were prepared for this trial. The accused was found guilty, but fled to a city in southern Gaul and lived in luxury for many years on part of his stolen fortune.

155. **Publicans and Bankers.** — If the greedy proconsuls left anything in the provinces worth gathering in, the publicans and bankers sat like cormorants, ready to complete the work of despoiling the hapless people.

The publicans were taxgatherers, and to them the proconsul would " farm " out the tax districts. A publican would purchase from the governor the right to tax a certain district. He thereupon enriched himself by gathering from the people far more than he had paid for the privilege. The publicans had the authority to fix the tax rate, and many of them became tyrants and extortioners. The proconsul and his army sustained the plundering publicans. Great numbers of the people were reduced to poverty through the merciless extortions of the taxgatherers.

Another class which exploited the provincials was the bankers and money changers of Rome. In Rome there was an overabundance of money, gathered from all points of the compass, as tribute and plunder from the provinces. From this cause money was scarce in the provinces, and the interest rates were high. The bankers would borrow money in Rome for four or five per cent interest and loan it out in the provinces for fifteen, twenty, and sometimes even fifty per cent. Not infrequently, it happened that a provincial city, after being plundered by the Roman armies, found it necessary to raise a loan. It would borrow of the Roman bankers at an excessive rate of interest, and if it could not repay, its people were sold into slavery.

Questions and Topics. — I. What effect had the Roman conquests on the Roman people? Who was Cato? (See Cyclopedia.) What were the classes of Roman society at this period? What can you tell of the influence of the conquered Greeks on their Roman conquerors? Why were the Greeks more cultured than the Romans? Write an essay showing the contrast.

II. From what noted family were the Gracchi descended? What were the chief reforms of Tiberius Gracchus? of Gaius Gracchus? Can you name any country where the conditions are similar to the conditions in Rome at that time?

III. In what respects did the government of the conquered Italian lands differ from the government of the Roman provinces? Write a comparison between the government of the Roman provinces and that of the American colonies by England before our Revolutionary War.

Events and Dates. — Simplicity of Roman life changed to extravagance through the conquests. The Romans are greatly benefited by Greek culture. Death of Tiberius Gracchus, 133 B.C.; of Gaius Gracchus, 121 B.C. Government of the provinces.

For Further Reading. — Morey, *Outlines of Roman History.* Beesly, *The Gracchi, Marius and Sulla.* Breasted, *Ancient Times.* Stephenson, *Public Lands of the Roman Republic.*

CHAPTER XII

THE CENTURY OF CÆSAR

I. MEN AND EVENTS BEFORE THE TIME OF CÆSAR

156. The Last Century of the Republic. — With the passing of the Gracchi the Roman republic entered on what may be called its third period. The first period was characterized by a long struggle of the lower classes for political and social rights; the second was the period of conquest, first of Italy, then of other Mediterranean lands. The third period, covering the last century of the Roman republic, was characterized by civil wars and the struggles of military leaders for personal control.[1]

At the beginning of this century the republic had begun to totter on its foundations. The government was in the hands of the Senate, and the Senate was venal and corrupt. The people also had been corrupted by the spoils of war. The old-time Roman virtue was growing rarer and rarer.

The last century of the republic began with a period of disorder and terror, of riot and bloodshed in the streets of Rome. At length, however, a strong leader, Pompey the Great, gained control of the government, restored order, and brought back a semblance of the old-time glory of the city.

157. Pompey the Great. — At this time the Mediterranean was aswarm with pirates, bold sea robbers who took advantage of the disorder in Rome to plunder the coasts. In 67 B.C. a law was passed giving Pompey full control of the Mediterranean coasts for a term of three years. The trust was not misplaced. It required but forty days for Pompey to clear this great sea of pirates.

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[1] Chief among these rival leaders were Ma'rius and Sulla. For many years the Roman people were distracted by civil war and the streets of Rome flowed with blood, owing to the sordid ambitions of these men.

He then pursued them to their strongholds and quickly subdued them.

The next year Pompey was appointed commander in the East; he left Rome with an army and was absent five years. Everywhere he was successful. He extended the Roman dominions to the valley of the Euphrates. He then led his army to Palestine, besieged and captured Jerusalem, the holy city of the Jews, and reduced Jude'a to a dependency of Rome (63 B.C.). Some time after Pompey returned to Rome he enjoyed a triumph, the most splendid in the history of the city. Before his chariot walked 300 captive princes, and the brass tablets declared that he had captured a thousand fortresses, eight hundred ships, and had founded thirty-nine cities.

158. Cicero and Catiline. — While Pompey was absent in the East, Rome had a narrow escape from destruction through a villainous conspiracy led by Cat'iline. Defeated by Cicero for the consulship, Catiline determined to wreak vengeance on the people. Gathering about him a crowd of desperate characters, he conspired to kill the senators and burn the city, but the plot was discovered by Cicero.

Cicero, whose name as an orator is coupled with that of the great Demosthenes, was born in 106 B.C. He won undying fame, not only as an orator and statesman, but as a writer whose works are read wherever the Latin language is studied. When he unearthed the wicked plot of Catiline, he exposed and denounced the conspirators in the Senate in four withering orations. And he was quite successful. Some of the leading conspirators were captured and put to death. Catiline, escaping from the city, attempted to flee to Gaul, but was surrounded by an army and killed in battle. The city was saved and Cicero was hailed as the Father of his Country.

II. JULIUS CÆSAR

159. Early Life of Cæsar. — The greatest Roman who ever lived was Gaius Julius Cæsar. Born of a noble family in 100 B.C., Cæsar spent his early life as a leader among the gay young nobles of the capital city. Now and then his future greatness was foreshadowed in his youth. On one occasion he was captured by Mediterranean pirates. They demanded twenty talents for his ransom, but he scornfully told them that they did not know the value of their captive and that he would pay them fifty talents. During the few months that he was with the pirates he entered into their games and made himself agreeable, but he told them that the time would come when he would capture and hang them. This threat he carried out.

It is said that when Cæsar was about thirty years of age, while reading one day about Alexander the Great, he burst into tears, saying, " At my age he had conquered the world, and I have done nothing."

160. Cæsar and Pompey. — Pompey, as already stated, received a triumph for his victories in the East, but the Senate looked with jealous distrust upon its too successful general. Cæsar had won signal victories in Spain and, returning to Rome, was received with equal coldness by the Senate. Pompey and Cæsar, like the Gracchi, had espoused the cause of the people rather than that of the aristocrats. They now joined their interests in opposition to the Senatorial party, and with a rich man named Crassus formed a party of three leaders called the First Triumvirate. Cæsar, after serving as consul, was appointed proconsul of Cisalpine Gaul (the Po Valley) for five years, afterward increased to ten. It was later arranged that Pompey should be elected to the consulship while Cæsar should lead an army into Gaul (France) and effect the conquest of that country. On Cæsar's return from Gaul it was agreed that Pompey should support him for reëlection to the consulship.

161. Cæsar Conquers Gaul. — The expedition of Cæsar into Gaul (modern France and Belgium) may be compared with that of Alexander the Great in the Orient, or of Hannibal in Italy. Cæsar proved himself an invincible warrior. The task of subduing the Gallic peoples required eight years of warfare in which hundreds of thousands of men perished and eight hundred cities were destroyed. Cæsar himself wrote a history of this war in his *Commentaries*, a specimen of pure and elegant Latin prose which is still read in our schools.

The first encounter was with the Helvetians (hĕl-vē'shanz), a people who occupied the slopes of the Swiss Alps. Desiring a more congenial climate, they destroyed their towns and started to migrate westward. Cæsar met them on the banks of the Rhone, defeated them with fearful slaughter, and drove the survivors back to their mountain home. He then met and repulsed a great body of Germans who had crossed the Rhine into Gaul.

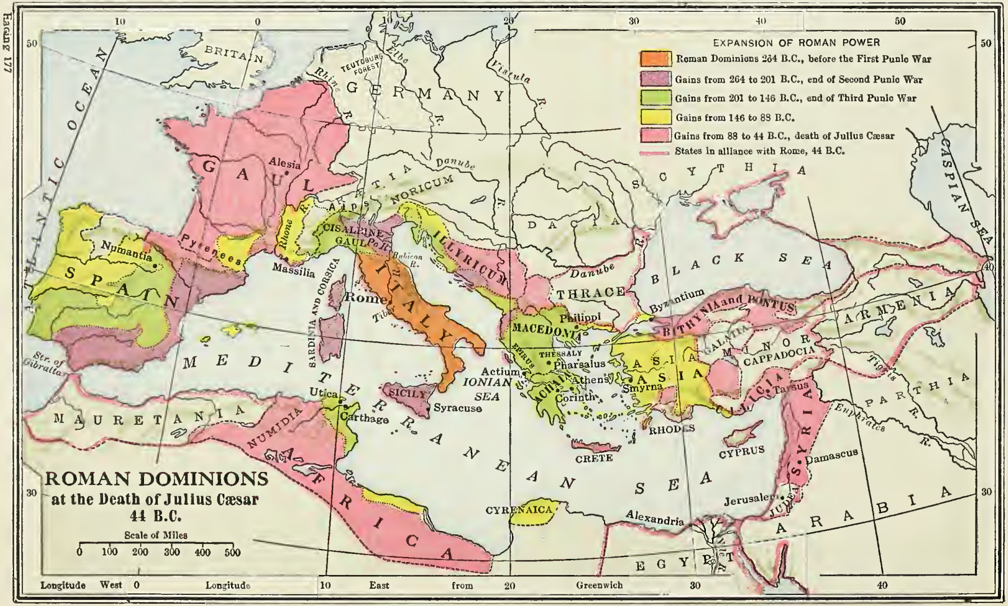
In 55 B.C. and again the following year Cæsar crossed the Channel into Britain, but made no effective conquest of that country. After six years of warfare, when it seemed that all Gaul had yielded to Roman power, Cæsar and his army were startled at the news that the Gauls in all parts of the country were rising against Roman authority, under a powerful leader named Vercinget'orix.

The world presents no more knightly figure, says a great historian, than Vercingetorix. Tall and strong, with long, flowing light hair and a proud, soldierlike bearing, this man, believing that the Gauls should be independent of Rome, called the many Gallic tribes to war against the common enemy.

Cæsar quickly faced the new foe. After many minor battles, the Gauls took refuge in Alesia (a-lē'shĭ-a), a town on a hill not far from Paris. Cæsar besieged the city for many days, and finally a terrific battle was fought, the Gauls attacking the Romans from the city while another army attacked them in the rear. Cæsar won a consummate victory, the greatest of his long military career.

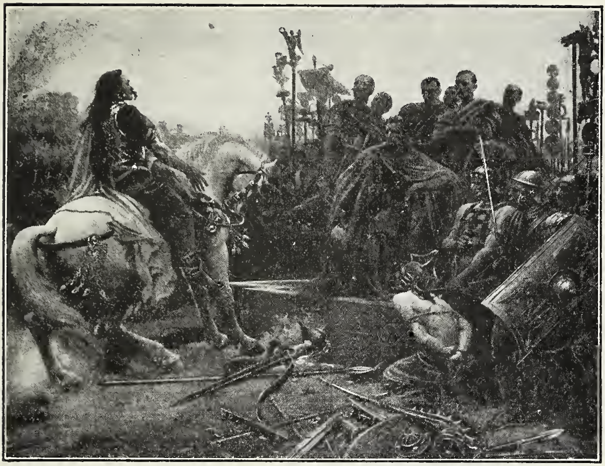
Vercingetorix, seeing that all was lost, said to his officers, "I undertook this war to save the common liberty, not for my own profit. Put me to death to satisfy the Romans, or give me up alive." A little later he rode down to the Roman camp, and threw his helmet at the feet of Cæsar. Gaul was conquered, and Julius Cæsar was the greatest hero of his time.

Facing 177



ROMAN DOMINIONS
at the Death of Julius Cæsar
44 B.C.

EXPANSION OF ROMAN POWER
Roman Dominions 264 B.C., before the First Punic War
Gains from 264 to 201 B.C., end of Second Punic War
Gains from 201 to 146 B.C., end of Third Punic War
Gains from 146 to 88 B.C.
Gains from 88 to 44 B.C., death of Julius Cæsar
States in alliance with Rome, 44 B.C.
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Longitude West 0 Longitude 10 East from 20 Greenwich 30 40
10 0 20 30 40 50
50
30
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BRITAIN
TEUTOBURG FOREST
Rhine R.
Elbe R.
Vistula R.
GERMANY
GAUL
Alesia
Rhone R.
Massilia
Pyrenees
SPAIN
Numantia
Str. of Gibraltar
MAURETANIA
NUMIDIA
AFRICA
Utica
Carthage
SARDINIA AND CORSICA
RAETIA
Alps
NORICUM
Danube
CISALPINE GAUL
Po R.
Rubicon R.
ITALY
Rome
Tiber
SICILY
Syracuse
ILLYRICUM
DACIA
THRACE
MACEDONIA
Philippi
EPIRUS
THESSALY
Pharsalus
Actium
IONIAN SEA
ACHAIA
Athens
Corinth
CRETE
RHODES
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CYRENAICA
EGYPT
Nile R.
Alexandria
SCYTHIA
BLACK SEA
Byzantium
BITHYNIA and PONTUS
ASIA MINOR
ASIA
Smyrna
GALATIA
CAPPADOCIA
CILICIA
Tarsus
CYPRUS
SYRIA
Damascus
JUDEA
Jerusalem
ARMENIA
CASPIAN SEA
Tigris R.
Euphrates R.
PARTHIA
ARABIA



Vercingetorix before Cæsar — Painting by Royer

162. Cæsar Crosses the Rubicon. — The conquest of Gaul from the Rhine to the Pyrenees was very gratifying to the Roman people. For hundreds of years the unconquered barbarians of the north had menaced the very existence of Rome, and on one occasion had burned it to the ground (sec. 131). When therefore it was learned that Cæsar had mastered the whole land, the rejoicing was wild and unrestrained. But there was a discordant note. The Senate was in a surly mood, and Pompey, who had gone over to the party of the Senate, was extremely jealous of the rising fortunes of his one-time friend. To retain his popularity Pompey had built a great stone theater and had regaled the people with gladiatorial shows. But the people's heart went out to Cæsar, and Pompey became alarmed lest he should fall from his lofty position as the first citizen of Rome.

The Triumvirate had agreed that Cæsar should be elected consul after his Gallic campaign; but the Senate, led by Pompey, now decreed that Cæsar must disband his army before entering Italy, and pronounced him a public enemy if he did not do so within a certain time.

Cæsar saw clearly that if he complied with the Senate's order, he would find himself a defenseless private citizen in the midst of his enemies. His only alternative was to march upon Rome with his army, and this he chose to do. As he came to the little river Rubicon that divided his province from the Italian land, it is said that he hesitated thoughtfully before making so momentous a decision. Then exclaiming, " The die is cast," he plunged his charger into the river.

163. Becomes Master of the World. — Great was the commotion in Rome when the audacious act of Cæsar became known. The great Pompey had boasted that he could fill Italy with armed men by stamping on the ground. But he made no effort at defense; with many of the senators he fled from the city of which he had been master so long and escaped to Greece.

Cæsar moved slowly, irresistibly toward Rome. The towns and cities raised no sword against him. The people shouted their welcome. Within a few weeks he occupied the city of Rome without striking a blow.

Later Cæsar went to Spain and defeated Pompey's followers there. Then he proceeded to Greece in pursuit of Pompey himself.

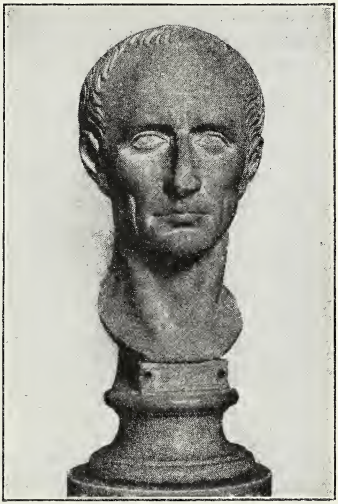
An incident on the coast of Greece indicated this wonderful man's opinion of himself. He was crossing a bay in an open boat when a rising storm caused the boatman to quake with fear. Cæsar said to him, "What have *you* to fear? You carry Cæsar."

Pompey met his pursuing enemy in the battle of Pharsa'lus in Thessaly (48 B.C.), and was utterly defeated. He fled to Egypt, but on landing there was slain by order of the king, Ptolemy (tŏl'e-mĭ), who thus hoped to win the favor of Cæsar. In this he failed, for Cæsar wept when on reaching Egypt he was shown the severed head of his former friend and ally. Presently he overthrew Ptolemy in war, and made Ptolemy's sister Cleopatra queen of Egypt. Cæsar then proceeded to Asia Minor, put down a revolt in a short, vigorous campaign, and reported it to Rome in the three short words "*Veni, vidi, vici*"[1] (I came, I saw, I conquered).

A little later we find Cæsar at Rome, master of the world. How will he use his power?

164. Cæsar's Policy. — No man that ever wielded imperial power did so with greater moderation than did Julius Cæsar. Relentless in war, he was generous and kind to a conquered foe. Cæsar was great enough to forgive. He showed favor to friend and foe alike.

In the brief space of Cæsar's reign as dictator of Rome (48–44 B.C.) he did much for the Roman people. He made the Senate popular by increasing its numbers and admitting the common people to membership. He revived the Licinian land law (secs. 125, 151), and furnished homes for 80,000 landless citizens. Thus the dream of the Gracchi became a reality.



JULIUS CÆSAR

From a bust in the British Museum.

One of the best things Cæsar did was to change the vicious system of taxing the provinces. He did this by permitting each town to collect its own share of the taxes in its own way. He also reformed the calendar and fixed it nearly as we have it to-day (sec. 25). He rebuilt the city of Corinth, and planned the rebuilding of Carthage, which was carried out after his death.

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[1] English pronunciation vē′nī, vī′dī, vī′sī; Roman pronunciation wā′nē, wē′dē, wē′kē.

Moreover, Cæsar determined to do still greater things. He planned to make an expedition into Parthia, Scythia, and Germany, to conquer those countries and add them to the Roman dominions. He proposed to codify the Roman laws, to build public libraries, to divert the Tiber for the benefit of shipping, to drain the great marshes of Italy, and to cut a ship canal across the Isthmus of Corinth.[1]

With many of his comprehensive plans unrealized, the great Cæsar was cut down in the midst of his years. Many an honest Roman was too conservative to comprehend or appreciate Cæsar's swift reform movements, and they feared for the liberties of the people. Others were jealous of his colossal power, or felt bitter over the downfall of their idol Pompey. Among the malcontents were Brutus and Cassius (kăsh′ĭ-us), both of whom were in Pompey's army at Pharsalus. Both owed their lives to Cæsar's mercy and were even raised to office by him. They formed a conspiracy to kill him.

It was the Ides of March (March 15), 44 B.C. Cæsar had been advised by friends to have a bodyguard; but he answered that he would rather suffer death than live in fear of it. Of this very day there had been ominous rumors, and Cæsar had been warned to beware the Ides of March. He refused to heed and went to the Senate chamber as usual. The conspirators gathered about him as if to beg a favor, and stabbed him with their daggers. He attempted to defend himself with his stylus (sec. 122), but when he saw Brutus, "the noblest Roman of them all," whom he had considered his true friend, raise his dagger also, he cried, "*Et tu, Bru′te!*" (You too, Brutus!). He then threw his mantle over his face and fell at the foot of Pompey's statue, bleeding from more than twenty wounds.

165. **Results of the Death of Cæsar.** — Julius Cæsar has been pronounced by some writers the greatest statesman in the world's history. No doubt he was ambitious. Plutarch tells us that he

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[1] A ship canal was completed across the Isthmus of Corinth in 1893, nearly 2000 years after Cæsar had planned it.

"had a passion after honor," but this did not mar his usefulness to Rome. Distracted and bleeding after a century of civil war, Rome was greatly in need of just such a master hand as his. With all the Roman world at his feet, his capacity for government had not yet been measured. He had nothing but kindness for the poor and the oppressed, and even for his sometime enemies. A more senseless and insane act than the murder of Cæsar would be hard to imagine.

The conspirators, of whom there were more than fifty, perhaps believed they were rendering their country a service by ridding it of the one-man power. Perhaps they hoped to bring back the old days of the republic, but in this they were sadly mistaken. Times had changed, and nothing could restore the old conditions. They believed, too, that they could win the approval of the Roman people and stand before them as liberators and benefactors. In this again they grievously miscalculated.

Cæsar's nearest friend was Mark An'tony (in Latin, Marcus Anto'nius), his fellow consul, who came into possession of his will and his property. In a most adroit funeral oration over Cæsar, Antony stirred the people to frenzy against the conspirators, who would have been killed by the mob had they not fled from the city.[1] (Side talk, page 184.)

III. Rise of Octavius

166. Octavius. — The great Cæsar, having no direct descendants, had named his grandnephew, Octa'vius, as his heir. Octavius, a youth of eighteen years, was with some Roman legions in Greece when a messenger from his mother announced to him the tragedy of the Ides of March. He hastened to Rome to claim his inheritance, and it was not long before he had won popular favor and shown much capacity for a youth of his age.

At first Octavius and Antony quarreled, then they became friends and joined with Lep'idus, a commander in the army, in forming the Second Triumvirate. Unlike the humane Cæsar, they put hundreds of their enemies to death, and among them the greatest of Roman orators, the aged Cicero.

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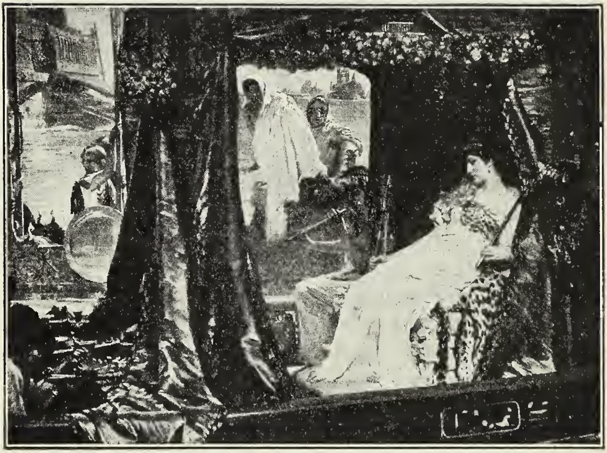
[1] The address and the whole scene have been immortalized by Shakespeare in his play *Julius Cæsar.*



Antony and Cleopatra

Painting by Alma-Tadema. Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, was one of the most beautiful women of all time. In the civil war after Cæsar's death, Antony summoned her to meet him at Tarsus, in Cilicia, to explain her part in that war. The picture shows the queen as Antony saw her, in her splendidly adorned boat. Shakespeare describes her thus in *Antony and Cleopatra*, Act II, Scene II:

> For her own person,
> It beggar'd all description; she did lie
> In her pavilion cloth-of-gold of tissue —
> O'erpicturing that Venus where we see
> The fancy outwork nature.

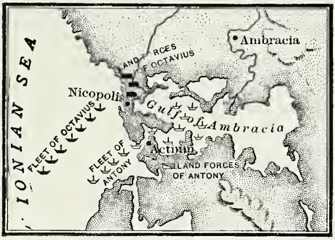
In 42 B.C. Antony and Octavius led an army into Macedonia in pursuit of Brutus and Cassius, the assassins of Cæsar. A battle was fought at Philip'pi. Brutus and Cassius were defeated and both committed suicide, Cassius with the same dagger with which he had struck Cæsar.

In the triumvirate Lepidus ceased to be an important factor, and the government of the Roman world was divided between Octavius and Antony.

167. Battle of Actium; Death of Antony and Cleopatra. — Octavius was master of Italy and the West, and Antony of the East. But two leaders of equal authority seldom continue long in harmony, nor did this instance prove an exception to the rule.

After some years the final break between them came about in this way. Antony had become enamored of the beautiful Egyptian queen, Cleopatra, and spent much of his time with her in luxurious idleness. He affronted his fellow ruler of the Roman world by divorcing his wife Octa′via, sister of Octavius, and moreover it was rumored that Antony was planning to overpower his rival and transfer the capital from Rome to Alexandria.

War was now inevitable. In 31 B.C. the two forces met in a great naval battle on the western coast of Greece near the promontory of Actium (ăk′shĭ-um). Octavius was present in person, also Antony and his Egyptian enchantress. But in the midst of the battle Cleopatra fled in her galley, and Antony, learning of the fact, followed her. Their cause was lost and their fleet surrendered. The next year Octavius landed in Egypt. He met little opposition. Both Antony and Cleopatra committed suicide, and Egypt was made a Roman province (30 B.C.).



BATTLE OF ACTIUM

After an absence of four years Octavius returned to Rome. Though still a young man he was master of the world, as his great uncle had been twenty years before. His popularity was unbounded. He went through the formality of handing his power over to the Senate, but the Senate restored it to him and he became the first Emperor of Rome (27 B.C.). At this time Octavius was given the title Augus'tus, and he is known to history as Augustus Cæsar. The eighth month of our year was named in his honor, as the seventh month had already been named after Julius Cæsar.

SIDE TALK

Assassination of Cæsar. — The conspirators against the life of Cæsar included some men of high character who joined in the plot evidently believing that they would do their country a real service by delivering it from one-man power. It is notable that they determined to commit the deed in open day and in a public place, and that they made no provision for their own escape in case of an uprising of the people against them. The plot had become known to some who were not in it, and one of these, a Greek teacher of oratory, tried to apprise Cæsar of the danger. He wrote out a statement of the facts as he had heard them and handed it to Cæsar while on his way to the Senate chamber. Cæsar took the tablet and attempted to read it, but in the dense crowd the interruptions were so many that he could not do so.

When the assassination was accomplished Brutus turned to address the Senate, but the disorder was so great that he could not be heard, and the senators soon rushed from the building and spread the news over the city. Even Cæsar's nearest friends, Antony and Lepidus, fearing that they too were included in the plot, fled to places of safety. The conspirators hastened to Capitol Hill in the hope of finding an opportunity to address the crowds and explain that their deed was a purely patriotic one. For some time the body of Cæsar was left where it fell, deserted by all except three slaves, who later carried it to the home he had left a few hours before.

The excitement of the city was great when the news spread from street to street, and so it continued during the night. Next day Brutus addressed a crowd in the Forum, explaining why the deed had to be done in order to save the country from despotism. His speech was received in silence.

The body of the dead statesman was reduced to ashes on a great funeral pyre in the Campus Martius near the city, amid a great concourse of people. The anger of the crowd against the assassins was slowly becoming roused. When the will of Cæsar was read, it was found that some of the conspirators were named as guardians of his property and one of them was made an heir. Cæsar had willed some splendid gardens on the Tiber to the public, and of his vast estate a large part was to be divided among the Roman citizens. When the people heard this will their outburst of anger was furious against the assassins, and they fled for their lives from the city.

Questions and Topics. — I. Into what three periods may the history of Rome at the time of Cæsar be divided? Give an account of Pompey. What was a Roman triumph? Do we honor successful commanders as the Romans did? Give the story of Catiline and Cicero. In what other respects do we know Cicero? What books of his can you name?

II. Tell the story of Cæsar's early life. Why did he and Pompey become enemies? Describe Cæsar's campaigns in Gaul. What is meant by "crossing the Rubicon" as we sometimes hear the expression? What is the meaning of *veni, vidi, vici?* What great things did Cæsar plan for Rome? Why did many honest Romans fear Cæsar's power? Is it usual for a great leader to awaken opposition? Give examples.

III. What can you say of Octavius? Look up and read Antony's funeral oration, as given by Shakespeare. Under what circumstances did Egypt become a Roman province? What form did the Roman government now assume? What is an empire (sec. 21)?

Events and Dates. — Pompey conquers Palestine, 63 B.C. Julius Cæsar conquers Gaul; crosses the Rubicon and captures Rome, 49 B.C. Cæsar assassinated, 44 B.C.

For Further Reading. — Same as in preceding chapter; also Dodge, *Cæsar: History of the Art of War*, or any other good biography of Cæsar. Trollope, *Cicero*. Plutarch's *Lives*.

CHAPTER XIII

THE AGE OF AUGUSTUS

I. AUGUSTUS AND THE GERMANS

168. Organizing the Empire. — For nearly five hundred years Rome had been a republic; but during the last hundred years of that time the city had many times been torn and distracted by disorder, bloodshed, and civil war. In short, the Roman people, whatever their virtues in the early days, had ceased to be capable of self-government. A monarchy had become inevitable.

Augustus Cæsar had gathered all the power within his own hands. The pliant Senate obeyed all his commands. While the republic was not formally abolished, Augustus was made consul, censor, high priest, perpetual tribune, and impera'tọr, or emperor. But Augustus was not at heart a tyrant. Freed from the influence of Antony, he was ready to play the part of his great uncle and to forgive his enemies. His reign of forty-one years as emperor (27 B.C.–14 A.D.) was a period of comparative quiet and of constructive statesmanship. For the third time in the history of Rome the gates of the temple of Janus (sec. 130) were closed.

Augustus was a man of simple personal tastes; he made no effort to imitate the pomp of an Oriental monarch. He built great highways through Gaul and in other parts of his dominions. He erected splendid monuments and public buildings in Rome and boasted that while he found it a city of brick he left it a city of marble.

169. Victory of Hermann. — Augustus loved peace rather than war, but there was war here and there in the provinces during his reign. He had two stepsons, Drusus and Tiberius, both of whom were able commanders. Tiberius was sent to the valley of the Danube and with signal success drove back the hordes of fierce barbarians who threatened Macedonia. Drusus was stationed on the Rhine and for three years he traversed Germany. He was killed by a fall from his horse.

Tiberius was then transferred to the north. He conquered the German tribes from the Rhine to the Elbe (ĕl′bē̆), and had he remained, there is little doubt that the Latinizing of the Germans, as in the case of the Gauls, would have been permanent. But Va′rus, a vain, weak man, was made governor of the new province. Varus treated his subjects as slaves and put on the airs of an Oriental monarch.

The Germans rebelled under a brave young leader named Armin′ius, or Hermann, who had received his education at Rome. Varus and his army were led into an ambush in the Teu′toburg forest, surrounded, and cut to pieces (9 A.D.). Varus slew himself, and but few of his army were left to tell the story.

Augustus was overcome with grief at this disaster. From time to time he would cry, " Varus, Varus, give me back my legions." He made no further attempt at permanent conquest of the Germans, and the Rhine remained the Roman frontier for five hundred years.

The effect of the victory of Hermann on modern civilization can only be conjectured. It assured the separate development of the Classic and Teutonic peoples. Had the Romans remained in possession of Germany the country would have been Latinized, and the German and English languages and perhaps the ideals and institutions of the Teutons and of their English and American descendants would be different from what they are. This battle is considered one of the decisive battles of the world.

II. BEGINNINGS OF CHRISTIANITY

170. Birth of Jesus. — In the midst of the reign of Augustus Cæsar, at a moment of universal peace, when " no war nor battle sound was heard the world around," there was born in Bethlehem among the Judean hills, One whose influence on the future of the world was destined to outshine the influence of all the Cæsars and the Ciceros, the warriors and the emperors, the poets and the philosophers of the time. Jesus was born among the lowly, and the great, seething Roman world knew nothing of the event. But the time was to come when all historic events, ancient and modern, were to be reckoned by the western world as so many years or centuries before or after the birth of Christ.

With a few chosen followers, Jesus spent three years journeying through Galilee and other parts of Judea, teaching a new religion and laying down a code of morals the best the world had ever known. But He awakened antagonisms and made enemies and He was put to death under the Roman law. His disciples bore witness to the fact that He rose from the dead, and in attestation of their conviction they gave their lives to the spreading of the new religion.

171. Spread of Christianity. — The disciples of Christ were soon convinced, through a vision of Saint Peter, that the new religion was to be offered to all men and not be confined to the Hebrew nation. Nor was it to be propagated by force; it must win its way by persuasion and conviction.

Saint Paul, a later convert and a Roman citizen, became the chief agent in carrying the new religion to the Roman dominions outside Judea. He first planted churches in Asia Minor, Macedonia, and Greece, and finally in Rome, where, after a life of marvelous activity, he suffered martyrdom (about 67 A.D.).

At the time of Christ the Roman Empire tolerated all religions, and thus Saint Paul and his fellow workers had at first a free hand in planting churches. But the time soon came when the Christians were looked upon as disturbers of public order and persecution followed.[1]

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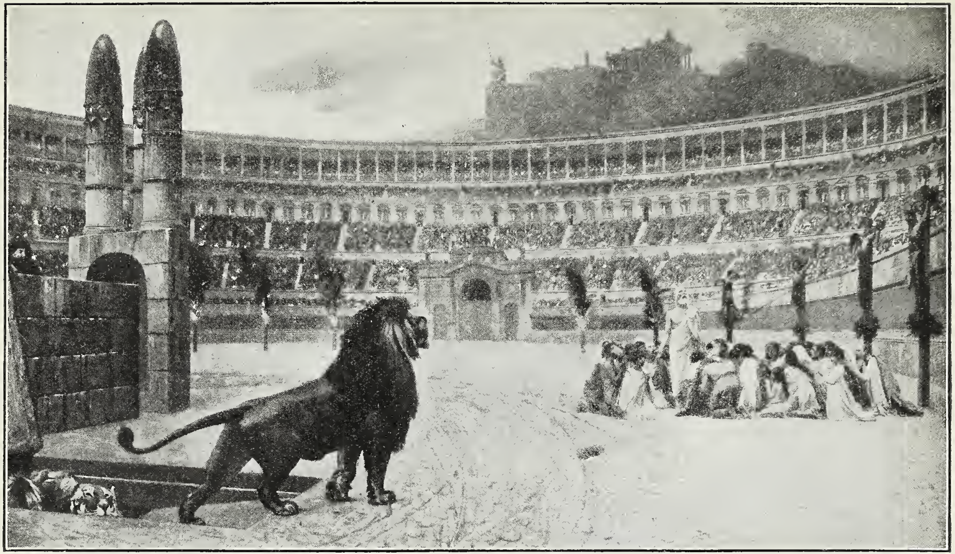
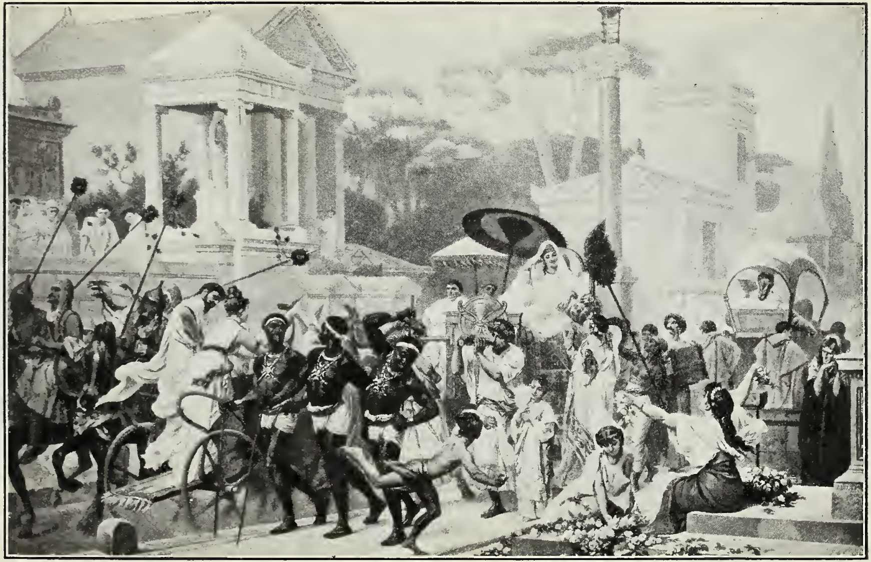
[1] The picture on the opposite page shows a group of Christian martyrs awaiting the fate to be meted out to them for steadfastness to the Faith. The trap door has been raised to admit the hungry beasts that are to devour them in the presence of the many thousands of spectators. Round the edge of the arena are other martyrs, crucified and to be burned.



Christian Martyrs in the Arena—Painting by Gérome



Roman Street Scene — Painting by Boulanger

The first of the persecutions was in the time of Nero when the Christians were accused of setting fire to the city of Rome.[1] A great many Christians, as the historian Tacitus informs us, were put to death. They were crucified, sewed in skins of wild animals and torn by dogs, or covered with pitch and set on fire to light the public places at night. But the new religion survived this and various later persecutions and, as noted on a later page, it became the state religion of the empire within three centuries after its founding.

III. Life and Society under the Empire

172. The Upper Class; Condition of Morals. — The great Roman Empire with its growing cities, great highways,[2] and stately palaces was nevertheless growing weaker because of the decline of private virtue.

The homes of the rich in Rome were on the hills and slopes, while the poor lived in the valleys. The wealthiest Romans had, in addition to their city homes, country seats called villas along or near the great roads which led from Rome to various parts of

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[1] Augustus was succeeded by his stepson Tiberius, who was an able ruler. After his long reign, only a few of the emperors were men of importance. The reign of Claudius is remembered for the conquest of Britain (43 A.D.). Nero (54–68 A.D.) was one of the wickedest men that ever sat on a throne. It was said that he sang and danced while Rome was burning. Later when accused of having set fire to the city, he diverted suspicion by accusing the Christians of having done so. The reign of Vespa'sian (69–79 A.D.) is remembered for the siege and capture of Jerusalem by his son Titus (70) and for the building of the Colosse'um in Rome. Under Tra'jan (98–117) the empire reached its greatest extent (map following page 204). Ha'drian (117–138) left a name in history by building a great wall between Britain and Caledo'nia (Scotland), known as "Hadrian's Wall," to protect the civilized Britons from the savage Picts.

[2] The picture on the opposite page shows the Appian Way at Rome, lined with temples and mausoleums, and a view of the busy throng making its way along this thoroughfare. Near the center is a lady of high rank, seated in her palanquin and preceded by Ethiopians, while a slave girl at her side waves a fan to and fro. At the left are horsemen from some foreign land, just passing a man and woman standing side by side in a chariot. Roman girls seated on the steps offer flowers for sale. Above the street an interested group is watching the surging tide of humanity.

Italy. In these villas were found all the luxuries afforded by the times — libraries, baths, and beautiful gardens. Many of the homes in city and country were fine structures of stone or brick.

The furniture was simple; it consisted of a chest, a few chairs, couches, lamps, and tables. Many articles with which we are familiar, such as our mirrors, desks, hat racks, and chiffoniers, were unknown to the Romans. The table was often the most beautiful and costly piece of furniture in the house. The most expensive tables were made of cross sections of the citrus tree, brought from Africa. For one of these tables Cicero paid a sum equal to $20,000.

Cicero may be taken as an example of the best of the upper class of Romans. He was a man of high character, and there were others of the same class, but their numbers were not great in the time of Augustus.

Many of the rich were degraded with luxury. In lofty chariots they drove through the streets, followed by troops of dependents and slaves. The chariots and the harness on the horses were covered with ornaments of gold and precious stones. If a chariot ran down and crushed a child in the street the haughty owner drove on and cared nothing about it. Rich women wore ornaments so heavy that they could scarcely walk without the aid of servants. At the same time great numbers of the poor were homeless and starving.

173. Roman Slavery. — At the time of the founding of the empire the most numerous class of the population were the slaves. Many of the slaves in the Roman markets had been kidnaped by pirates around the shores of the Mediterranean or they were unfortunates sold for debt; but the great source of supply was through captives taken in war. It was said that Cæsar and Pompey alone sent a million men to the slave markets of the great city.

An army in the field was always followed by wholesale slave dealers who purchased captives, at a small price, of the commanding general. The captives were then marched in chains, sometimes hundreds of miles, to the slave markets of Rome. Usually they were sold at public auction. A slave was required to stand unclothed on a platform where he was carefully examined by those who wished to purchase.

A Roman citizen could hardly hold a respectable position in society unless he owned at least ten slaves. Many a rich Roman owned hundreds or even thousands of slaves. A Roman slave had no rights in the eyes of the law. The master could wear out his life with the severest toil, could punish him as he chose, or put him to death. Under the empire, however, a law was passed forbidding a master to kill his slave without due process of law, and in the later period the condition of the slaves was changed for the better by the influence of Christianity.

Great numbers of the slaves, it is true, lived in comfort, as clerks, body servants, teachers, book copiers, and the like; but the majority were forced to wear out their lives in unrequited toil, on the great landed estates or in the quarries. Here they worked in chain gangs during the day and were housed in dungeons at night.

On various occasions there were great slave uprisings. One of these, in 73–71 B.C., led by Spar'tacus, himself a slave, defied the Roman armies for two years.[1] In putting down this revolt Rome lost perhaps 100,000 men. (Side Talk, page 197.)

The slave system proved one of the great factors in the ruin and downfall of Rome. Free labor could not compete with that of slaves, and the great middle class became extinct. All labor came to be looked on as dishonorable. The rich, waited on by slaves, lived in luxurious ease, and the sturdy manhood of the early days declined and disappeared. The time came when even the armies had to be recruited from the barbarian population of the north.

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[1] From Spartacus was named the Spartacan (miscalled Spartacide) party of radical socialist workmen who tried in vain to seize control of Germany in 1919 by armed revolution.

174. **The Idle Masses.** — In our times we speak of the working masses; in Rome the poorer people were for the most part idle and shiftless. It must be remembered that there were no great manufacturing industries employing thousands of people as in our big cities, and that the rich, whose work was done by slaves, had no need of employing hired labor. The Roman laws did not protect the poor from oppression, and there were no benevolent societies to relieve from suffering. The poor therefore lived in sordid wretchedness, without virtue and without hope.

The "corn laws"[1] provided for the feeding of the masses of paupers, hundreds of thousands of them, with grain sold at a low price by the government or given free; because otherwise, maddened by hunger, they would have become dangerous. But the upper classes had no feeling of compassion for the poor. The poet Horace says, "I hate the common crowd," and even Cicero, one of the noblest of the Romans, shows his contempt for the masses.

The poor in Rome were housed in huge lodging houses, three or four stories high. These were crowded to their capacity. They were not homes in our sense of the word home; they were merely places to eat and sleep. The occupants idled about the city during the day, earning a dena′rius now and then by doing odd jobs when such could be found. It is true that a considerable number of this class had some occupation. There were bakers, small shopkeepers, weavers, dyers, and traders;. but the majority had no occupation. Even those who worked had no standing in society; work was considered degrading. Julius Cæsar did much to alleviate the sordid condition of the poor, and Augustus continued his policy. But Rome had lost her great, sturdy, industrious middle class, and without such a class no nation can long endure. The slave system and the pauper conditions spelled ruin for Rome, and the doom of the great empire was fast approaching.

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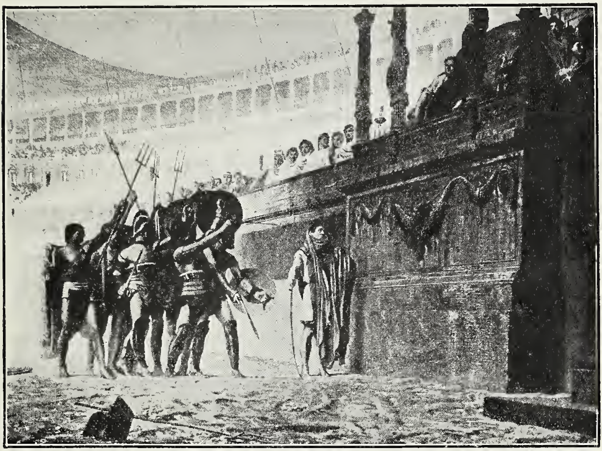
[1] The word corn, as it appears in Roman history — and also in English history — means grain, usually wheat. Indian corn, or maize, was unknown until after the discovery of America by Columbus.

175. The Gladiators. — Nothing more clearly reveals the low state of Roman society than the character of their plays and shows. Among these the most popular were the gladiatorial shows. The gladiators (from Latin *gladius*, a sword) were men, usually slaves or captives in war or criminals, who fought each other in the arena to entertain the crowds of people.



Gladiators before the Emperor

In the group of combatants in the arena are several holding trident and net. They have overcome their opponents in full armor by entangling them in the net, then attacking them with the trident.

We enjoy seeing a game of baseball, or even the rougher game of football; but if one of the players is hurt, the sympathy and distress of the crowd of onlookers are very evident. It was otherwise with the Romans. They demanded bloodshed for their entertainment. The gladiators were thoroughly trained for their bloody work. They were brought into the arena of a great inclosure called the amphitheater, where tens of thousands of people had gathered to see the show. If a gladiator fell wounded he would raise his hand to the crowd and beg for mercy. If the people clenched their fists, it was a sign that the fight must go on till one of the combatants was slain; or by another sign they would indicate that the fight must stop and the man's life must be spared. Sometimes hundreds of fights took place in a single day. The practice of holding gladiatorial shows spread to all the cities of Italy, Gaul, and the Roman province of Africa.

176. Other Games and Shows. — When a traveling circus comes to town with its caged wild animals, we are content to look at them; but the ancient Roman would insist on seeing them fight and kill one another. The animal combats were next to gladiatorial shows in popularity. From all parts of the world were brought lions, tigers, bears, elephants, and crocodiles.

Sometimes the wild animals, goaded to madness by fire or hunger, were turned into the arena to fight and kill one another. More frequently they fought with armed men, trained for the purpose. Still again, men were bound, naked and unarmed, and the animals turned loose to devour them. Many of the early Christian martyrs perished in this way.

Pompey the Great brought 500 lions, 18 elephants, and 410 other animals from Africa to Rome for the entertainment of the people. One emperor furnished 11,000 animals for the arena. A similar passion for blood still manifests itself in the bullfights in Spain and Mexico.

It is easy to see that a high standard of morals would be impossible among a people of such coarse and degraded taste as that shown by the Romans in their choice of entertainment. Far more admirable was the artistic taste of the Greeks. In the later period of the empire as many as 175 days of the year were set apart for plays and amusements. Some of the Roman amusements were far less reprehensible than those above described. Among these were the chariot races. They took place in the Circus Maximus, an extended course between the Aventine and Palatine hills (map, page 200), with seats in tiers to accommodate 385,000 people.

The four-horse chariot race was a very exciting affair. Each chariot made a triple circuit around the course. Sometimes a driver was thrown from his chariot and killed, but usually this form of amusement was without bloodshed.

IV. ROMAN LITERATURE

177. The Early Writers. — For five hundred years after the founding of Rome there was no writing worthy of being called literature. The Greeks taught the Romans to write, and the earliest writers were Greeks who translated Greek works into Latin (sec. 149). One of the greatest of the Roman historians was Polybius, a Greek, who was carried to Rome at the time of the conquest. He wrote a history of the expansion of the Roman power, a part of which has come down to us and is of great value.

Ter′ence (d. 159 B.C.) was a popular poet who had been a slave. He was the author of a famous line,[1] which, freely translated, means, " As I am a man, everything human interests me."

The two greatest prose writers just before the establishing of the Empire we have already met in the field of statesmanship — Julius Cæsar and Cicero. Cæsar's *Commentaries* (sec. 161) holds a high place as an example of elegant Latin prose, and it is believed to be also a true history of the writer's campaigns in Gaul.

Cicero is the prince of Latin prose writers. His orations are well known to college students and high school pupils. He also wrote delightfully on Old Age, Friendship, and many other subjects. It has been said and is no doubt true that Cicero did more than any other man to make Latin the universal language of civilization for sixteen hundred years.

178. The Augustan Age. — The Augustan age is known as the Golden Age of Latin literature. Only a few of the leading authors can be mentioned here.

Vergil (70–19 B.C.) and Horace (65–8 B.C.) were the great poets of the time. Their writings are still the delight of scholars throughout the world. Vergil's chief work is the *Æne'id*, an epic poem in twelve books relating the mythical founding of Rome and the origin of the Latin race (sec. 119). It reminds us of the great poems of Homer.

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[1] Homo sum; humani nihil a me alienum puto.

Horace is the best known of the Latin poets. He left many odes, satires, and epistles. He lived a happy life and his poems are pervaded by his spirit of optimism and contentment.

Livy (59 B.C.–17 A.D.) was the one great historian of the period, but only a part of his great work, the *History of Rome*, has been preserved. His history glows with patriotism, but the writer, like Herodotus (sec. 87), does not discriminate between fact and fable.

179. The Later Writers. — The most notable writer of the age of Nero was Sen'eca, who wrote on science and philosophy and produced tragedies founded on Greek models.

This period could also boast a historian in Tacitus (d. 117), who must be ranked in the same class with Livy. The style of Tacitus is clear and vigorous. His *Life of Agric'ola*, his father-in-law and the conqueror of Britain, and his treatise on the life and customs of the Germans, are of the greatest interest to modern students.

Plin'y the Elder wrote a *Natural History* containing 20,000 facts, a work of great importance, though unscientific. Pliny was a man of great learning and an unwearied student. His anxiety to study the mighty eruption of Vesu'vius at the time of the destruction of Pompeii (pŏm-pā'yē) and Hercula'neum (79 A.D.) led him to venture too near and cost him his life. Pliny the Younger left ten books of epistles, one of which contains his correspondence with the emperor Trajan.

Epicte'tus was a philosopher of great ability. He taught that the guiding hand of Providence is over all things. His teachings, like those of Plato (sec. 90), bear much resemblance to Christianity, but there is no evidence that he met with the early Christians.

Plutarch (d. about 125) was a Greek, but as he lived for a time in Rome and wrote a great deal about Romans, it may be proper to mention him in this connection. Of all the secular writers of ancient times none is perhaps more widely read and more frequently quoted than Plutarch. Many statements in this book are taken from his writings. The greatest work of Plutarch is his *Lives*, a series of biographies or life pictures of famous Greeks and Romans, arranged in pairs or parallels, with comments calling attention to points of resemblance.

180. Roman Law. — The Romans were imitators of the Greeks in many things, but not in matters of law and government. In these they were the leaders, not only of the Greeks, but of the whole world. Several hundred years before the founding of the Roman Empire the laws had been written in Twelve Tables. Every schoolboy was required to study these tables of the laws, and that all citizens might know them they were inscribed on bronze and set up in a public place at the Capitol.

As the centuries passed Roman law became more and more perfected, reaching its height under the empire. Except in its dealings with slavery, Roman law was based on a sane recognition of human equality and the necessity for order in government. This system of law is the basis of the laws which are still in force in Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, the Latin American countries, and the state of Louisiana.

Side Talk

Spartacus and the Servile War. — Spartacus was born in Thrace; he was first a shepherd and later a leader of bandits. Being captured by the Romans, he was taken to Capua and trained as a gladiator in the arena. Preferring to die in an attempt to gain his freedom, rather than in the arena, he formed a conspiracy to escape, and with seventy followers fought his way out of the city and took refuge in the crater of Vesuvius. Here he was joined by many runaway slaves.

Organizing a band of marauders, with Spartacus as leader, the slaves raided near-by towns and almost annihilated a Roman army of 3000 sent against them. Spartacus then issued a proclamation declaring slavery abolished in Italy and soon found himself at the head of 100,000 men. He marched past Rome to the Po Valley, defeating two large Roman armies. He forced some of the Roman knights he had captured to entertain his men by fighting with swords in an arena. Moving southward again through Italy, he was at last defeated and slain by an army led by Crassus, and the insurrection was suppressed (71 B.C.).

Questions and Topics. — I. Have you read Plutarch's Life of Julius Cæsar? Write out a comparison of Julius with Augustus Cæsar. Who was Hermann? Describe his victory and its supposed effect on the future of the world.

II. Relate the story of the birth of Jesus Christ, of the early spread of Christianity. What change took place in the attitude of the Roman Empire towards Christianity?

III. Describe the condition of the upper classes under the empire; of the slaves; of the idle masses. Why were the masses fed at public expense? Who were the gladiators and why so called? Can a refined and cultured people enjoy bloody games as the Romans did? Does the fact that our roughest games, such as football, are less dangerous than were the Roman games, prove that we are a more highly civilized people than the Romans were?

IV. Why was Rome without a literature in the early days? Why have we so little literature from our colonial days? Can you quote a famous line from the poet Terence? Have you read any of the writings of Cæsar or Cicero? What is meant by the Augustan Age? What effect had the Roman law on the world? What countries to-day base their laws on those of Rome? What is law and how are laws made in our country?

Events and Dates. — Augustus Cæsar becomes first emperor of Rome, 27 B.C. Christianity spreads rapidly under the empire. Roman literature reaches its height under Augustus. Among the greatest writers are Cicero, Vergil, Horace, and Livy.

For Further Reading. — Same as in preceding chapter; also, Bury, *History of the Roman Empire.* Pelham, *Outlines of Roman History.* Morey, *Ancient Peoples.* Johnston, *Private Life of the Romans.* Tucker, *Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul.* Cruttwell, *History of Roman Literature.*

CHAPTER XIV

ROMAN IMPERIALISM AND THE TRIUMPH OF CHRISTIANITY

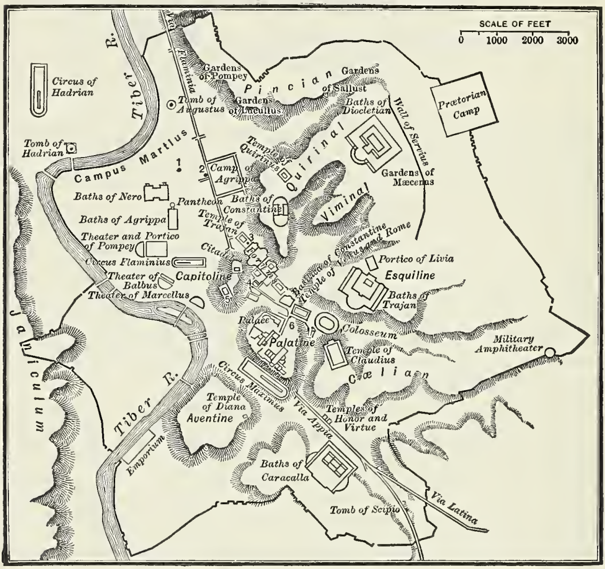
I. The City and the Empire

181. A View of the City. — Let us take a glance at the imperial city on the Tiber as " she sat on her seven hills and ruled the world."

From the collection of rude huts on the slopes of the Palatine Hill, the beginnings of which were ascribed to Romulus, the town expanded gradually as the centuries passed. One by one the valleys and the hills were covered, one by one the scattered villages were swallowed up and lost in the ever-expanding metropolis. At the time of the empire Rome was by far the greatest and most magnificent city in the world.

From the height of the Capitol one could look over hill and dale and see the endless windings of tortuous streets with their teeming crowds of restless humanity. Beautiful temples and palaces and pillars and statues innumerable adorned the surrounding hills. There were 10,000 public statues in Rome. Over against the river lay the Campus Martius where for hundreds of years the Roman youth had gathered to throw the discus, to ride the unbroken colt, and to practice feats of arms. At first but an open field, the Campus Martius could now be traversed from end to end under the cover of grand colonnades. Between it and the Capitol stood the great stone theater of Pompey, and a little northward was the beautiful temple called the Pan'theon.

To the southward near the slopes of the Aventine lay the colossal Circus Maximus with its hundreds of thousands of spectators convulsed with the exciting chariot races. Between the Cælian and Esquiline hills rose in imposing grandeur the Fla'vian Amphitheater, or Colosseum, in which the bloody contests of the gladiators and the wild beasts glutted the sordid taste of the gathered thousands. In all directions were sumptuous baths and palaces, with marble peaks and cupolas and gables gleaming above the green forests of lotus trees that covered the parks and gardens.


SCALE OF FEET
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Tiber R.
Circus of Hadrian
Tomb of Hadrian
Via Flaminia
Gardens of Pompey
Pincian
Gardens of Sallust
Tomb of Augustus
Gardens of Lucullus
Baths of Diocletian
Wall of Servius
Prætorian Camp
Campus Martius
1
2
Camp of Agrippa
Temple of Quirinus
Quirinal
Gardens of Mæcenas
Baths of Nero
Pantheon
Baths of Constantine
Viminal
Baths of Agrippa
Temple of Trajan
3
Basilica of Constantine
Temple of Venus and Rome
Theater and Portico of Pompey
Citadel
Forum
Portico of Livia
Circus Flaminius
Esquiline
Theater of Balbus
Capitoline
4
Baths of Trajan
Theater of Marcellus
5
Palace
6
Colosseum
Janiculum
Palatine
Military Amphitheater
Temple of Claudius
Cælian
Circus Maximus
Temple of Diana
Aventine
Via Appia
Temples of Honor and Virtue
Tiber R.
Emporium
Baths of Caracalla
Via Latina
Tomb of Scipio

IMPERIAL ROME

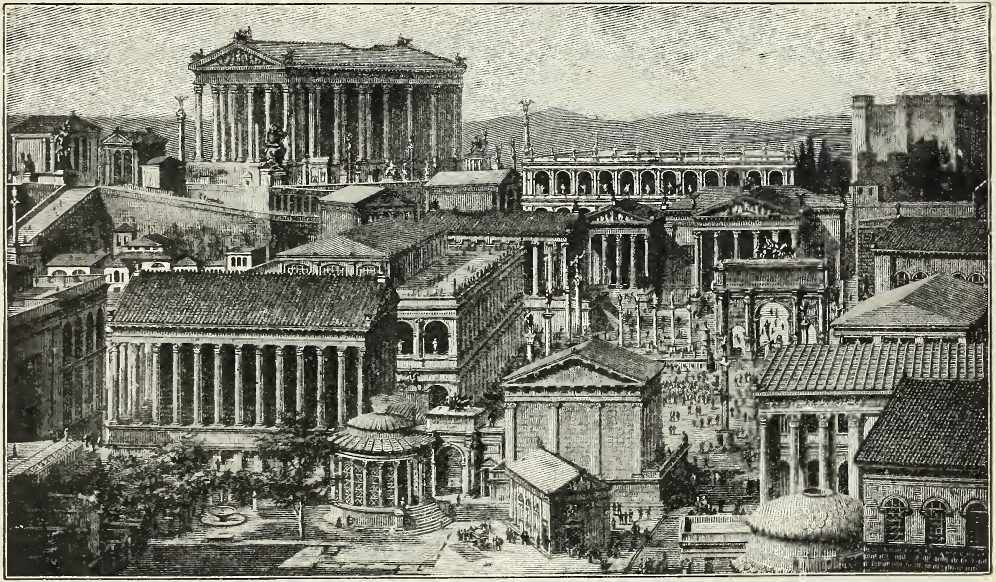
The wall surrounding the city was begun by the Emperor Aurelian, A.D. 271.

What London is to England, what Paris is to France, the Rome of the days of the empire was to the civilized world. All that was best and all that was worst were centered in Rome. It was the center of industry and thrift, the workshop of the world, and it was the lodgment of thousands of beggars and paupers. Here were gathered the artists, the poets, the philosophers, and orators from all lands. No ambitious youth felt that his education was complete until he had feasted his eyes on the glowing splendors of Rome. Here also were gathered troops of blond Germans from the dark forests of the north, tattooed savages from Britain, Egyptian religious zealots with shaven heads, Oriental princes in their shining uniforms. Here, finally, were Christian missionaries whose mission was to convert the great, proud, voluptuous City of the Seven Hills to the religion of Jesus.

182. A View of the Empire. — The population of the Roman Empire has been estimated at one hundred million souls. Other great empires there had been in the past — the Babylonian, the Assyrian, the Persian, the Macedonian, — but none could compare with that of Rome in the early centuries of the Christian era. From the burning sands of the Sahara to the banks of the Danube and the Rhine, from the shores of the Atlantic Ocean to the plains of Mesopotamia, from the Black Sea to the cataracts of the Nile, from the desert of Arabia to the boundary of Caledonia — all had yielded to the scepter of Rome; and the many races and peoples included in these vast bounds lived under Roman law and government.

The city of Rome ceased to be self-sustaining; it came to depend on its extensive provinces for its daily supplies and thus became the trading center of the empire. From all seas and lands came vessels laden with merchandise for the imperial city — grain and fruits and glass from Egypt, wool and silver ore and lumber from Spain, wine and oysters from Greece and the Ægean Islands, spices and ivory and precious stones from India and Arabia.

The great system of highways that covered large portions of the empire made inland travel popular. Such means of rapid traveling as we enjoy were of course unknown, and a long journey required weeks and months. Journeys were made from motives of trade or for pleasure and sightseeing, seldom for exploration



Roman Forum and its Surroundings (Restoration) and discovery. The ancients were less curious about the unknown than we are. A third of Europe, the larger part of Asia, and the larger part of Africa were unknown lands to the Roman, but he cared little about the matter. The chief desire of many a provincial was to visit the city of Rome.[1]

Many languages were spoken in the empire, but the Greek and the Latin prevailed. Greek was the language of culture and of commerce; Latin was used in Italy and the provinces of Africa, Spain, Gaul, and Dacia (dā′shĭ-a), and it became the basis of several modern languages.

183. Military Government. — The most notable of the emperors of the second century A.D. was Marcus Aure′lius (161–180). He was an able and conscientious ruler, but he was more than a statesman and ruler. He was a philosopher and thinker of the first rank. His *Meditations*, a book on the conduct of life, is one of the noblest products of any pagan writer. An English translation of it may be found in many libraries.

The century that followed the reign of Marcus Aurelius was a period of decline and disorder somewhat like the century of civil wars that preceded the rise of the great Cæsar. The choosing of the emperors fell to the army, and the army was no longer Roman. The Romans of Italy had ceased to enlist, and the army was made up of provincials and even of barbarians many of whom had never seen the imperial capital. What measure of patriotism could be expected of such bands of men? And yet the Roman government rested on their whims. What wonder that it fell into decay?

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[1] In the illustration on the opposite page, the Forum is the open space at the right of the center. During the centuries of Rome's greatness it was the chief meeting place of the city, and was surrounded by courts, temples, and other civic buildings. At the top of the picture is the lofty temple of Jupiter, on the Capitoline hill. The long arcade to the right of the temple is the Tabularium, where the state archives were deposited. The round pillared structure near the bottom of the picture is the temple of Vesta.

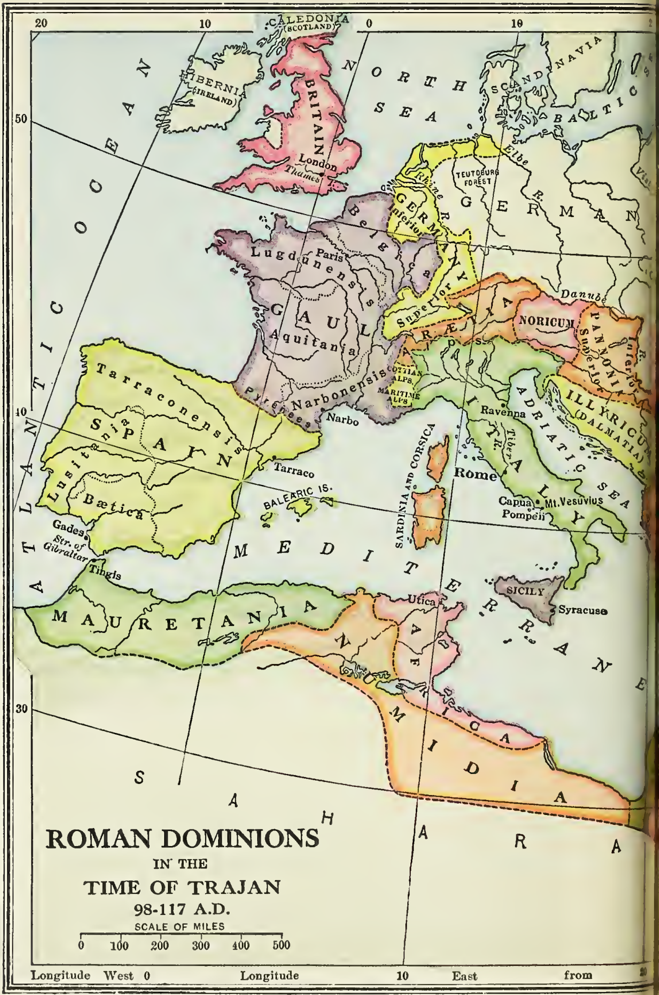
With the decline of Rome and the rise of Christianity some of the ancient public buildings were transformed, and others were used as quarries from which to erect churches and other new buildings. By the twelfth century the Forum had become buried forty feet deep in rubbish and was covered by gardens and canebrakes. It was not until the nineteenth century that the site was systematically explored.

In a period of ninety years no fewer than eighty emperors were chosen, many of whom died by violence, slain by rivals contending for the crown or by the army that had chosen them. The army once offered the crown to the highest bidder, and, having received the price, found some pretext for putting the purchaser to death and again offered it for sale. A few of these rulers were men of ability, as Alexander Seve′rus, and Aure′lian, who built a great wall around Rome; but the majority were soldiers of fortune devoid of character.

The condition of the people sank to its lowest ebb. Italy, Gaul, Spain, North Africa, were divided into great estates called villas, and the proprietors with their troops of slaves lived like princes. The small farmers were crowded out, and if they escaped starvation they fled to the city and swelled the crowds of paupers or attached themselves to the wealthy landowners. Agriculture declined until the supplying of food became a serious problem. The taxes were extremely heavy, and as money had become scarce the government exacted a portion of the harvest, thus going back to the old Egyptian methods of thousands of years before. Such was the condition of the empire during this century of disorder and anarchy. But a brighter day was dawning and the empire was again to enjoy a season of old-time prosperity. The new era came with the reigns of Diocletian (dī-ō̇-klē′shan) and Con′stantine.

II. TRIUMPH OF CHRISTIANITY

184. Struggles of the Early Christians. — At the beginning of the Christian era all religions were tolerated in the empire (sec. 171). This fact proved to be of great advantage in Asia Minor, Africa, and Europe. Mission churches were founded in many towns and in the course of the first century great numbers of people embraced the new faith.


CALEDONIA (SCOTLAND)
HIBERNIA (IRELAND)
BRITAIN
London
Thames
NORTH SEA
SCANDINAVIA
BALTIC
Elbe
TEUTOBURG FOREST
GERMANY
Rhine R.
GERMANY Inferior
Superior
Belgica
Lugdunensis
Paris
GAUL
Aquitania
Narbonensis
Narbo
Pyrenees
Danube
NORICUM
PANNONIA Superior
Inferior
RÆTIA
Alps
COTTIAN ALPS
MARITIME ALPS
ILLYRICUM (DALMATIA)
ADRIATIC SEA
Ravenna
ITALY
Tiber R.
Rome
Capua
Mt. Vesuvius
Pompeii
SARDINIA AND CORSICA
SICILY
Syracuse
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SPAIN
Tarraconensis
Lusitania
Bætica
Tarraco
Gades
Str. of Gibraltar
Tingis
BALEARIC IS.
MEDITERRANEAN
MAURETANIA
AFRICA
Utica
NUMIDIA
SAHARA
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Longitude
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ROMAN DOMINIONS

IN THE

TIME OF TRAJAN

98-117 A.D.

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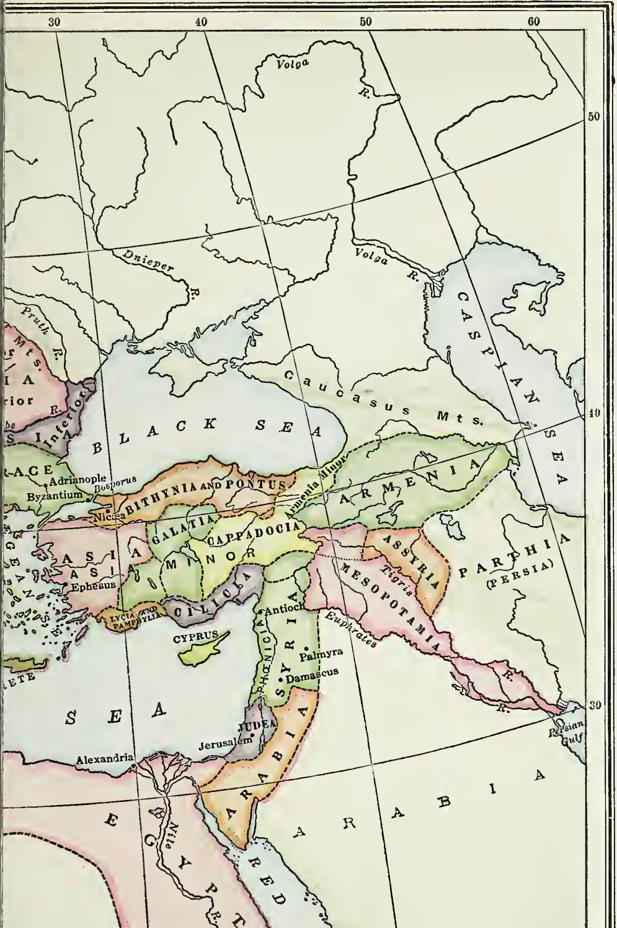
500

Following 204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Volga R.
Dnieper R.
Volga R.
Pruth R.
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S I
Inferior
CASPIAN SEA
Caucasus Mts.
BLACK SEA
RACE
Adrianople
Bosporus
Byzantium
Nicæa
BITHYNIA AND PONTUS
Armenia Minor
ARMENIA
GALATIA
CAPPADOCIA
ASSYRIA
PARTHIA
(PERSIA)
ASIA MINOR
ASIA
Ephesus
Tigris
MESOPOTAMIA
LYCIA AND PAMPHYLIA
CILICIA
Antioch
CYPRUS
PHŒNICIA
SYRIA
Palmyra
Euphrates
Damascus
R.
R.
ETE
SEA
JUDEA
Jerusalem
Persian Gulf
Alexandria
ARABIA
ARABIA
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But the early Christians did not escape bitter persecution. This arose from three main causes: (1) The Christians denounced all religions except their own as false and all gods except their God as figments of the mind; (2) They refused to pay divine honor to the emperor as required by law; (3) They were believed to have brought pestilence and famine upon the land through their insulting of the old Roman gods.

The early toleration of all religions did not continue, and under Trajan (98–117) Christianity became an exception and was outlawed. During the following two centuries ten persecutions were enumerated, some of which came under the best of the emperors (Marcus Aurelius, Vale′rian, and Diocletian), who were misled to believe that the Christians were a menace to public order.

185. **Reign of Diocletian** (284–305). — Diocletian was one of the strongest men that ever wore the purple. Born in the province of Illyricum, he rose in the army service until he became commander in the East. When chosen ruler of the Roman world he soon put down all opposition and made himself unmistakably the master.

A great change now came over the government. When the empire was established three hundred years before, the forms of the republic were retained. The Senate continued its sessions and kept up a pretense of sharing the power. Consuls and other officers were regularly chosen. Diocletian changed all this. He brushed aside all pretense of republican forms and made himself absolute monarch.

Another innovation of this emperor was that he chose a colleague and divided with him the power of governing. Each emperor was called Augustus, and each chose an assistant ruler called a Cæsar. The vast Roman dominions were divided into four sections, each having its resident ruler. This plan was very effective under the strong hand of Diocletian, but later proved to be impractical.

The last and the greatest of the persecutions of the Christians took place under Diocletian, near the close of his reign. A most determined and widespread effort was made to restore the exclusive worship of the old Roman gods. Thousands of Christians were put to death, often with cruel torture. But all in vain. The Christians multiplied in spite of persecution, and the hour of their triumph was at hand.

186. Constantine the Great. — Diocletian, weary of ruling, abdicated the throne and spent the remainder of his life on his estate near the eastern shore of the Adriatic Sea. His system of having a multiplicity of rulers soon bore its fruit in civil war. For seven or eight years this continued, until there were but two claimants to imperial power remaining alive — Licinius in the East and Constantine, son of a former "Cæsar," who ruled Italy and the West.

Constantine supported Christianity. The story of his conversion to the Christian belief is one of the most picturesque of history. During a war with a western rival, Constantine, while marching to battle, professed to have seen a cross of light in the heavens around which appeared the inscription *In Hoc Signo Vinces* (By this sign thou shalt conquer). With this cross as his battle sign he pressed on to victory against the rival prince. While his victorious troops were returning from the field, Constantine solemnly declared that henceforth he would support the religion whose sign was the Cross.

Many opinions are expressed as to the probability of the emperor's having seen the vision, or merely pretending to have done so, but it is certain that the moment proved an important turning point in the history of Christianity. Hitherto it had been an outlawed religion, but Constantine issued various decrees favoring it, and professed himself to be a convert. And when in 323 he overcame Licinius and became the sole emperor,[1] the new faith was fairly established as the state religion.

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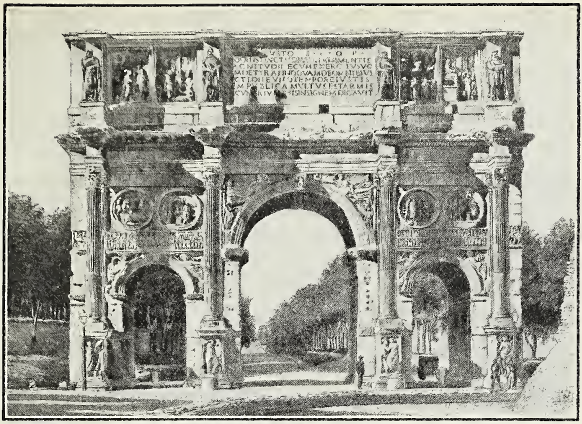
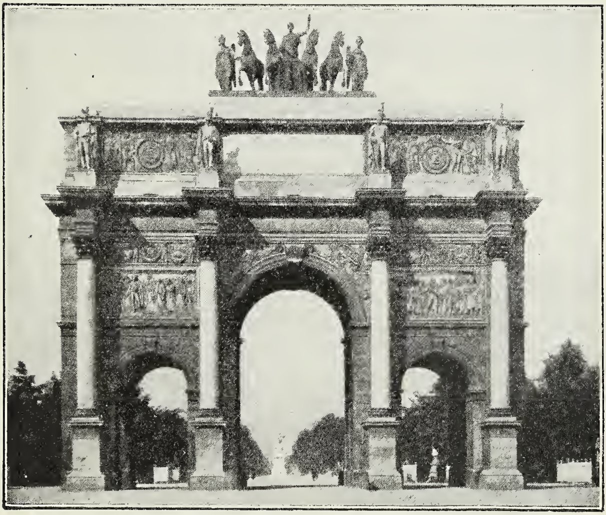
[1] The arch of Constantine, shown on the opposite page, is the best-preserved structure of the kind in Rome; many such triumphal arches were built by the ancient Romans. The arch of the Carrousel′ was erected in Paris in 1805, to commemorate the victories of Napoleon. It is an imitation of a Roman arch. Temporary triumphal arches were erected in many cities of the United States to commemorate the victories of our troops returned from the World War.



Triumphal Arch of Constantine, Rome



Triumphal Arch (Carrousel), Paris

In 321 Constantine decreed that the Christian Sunday be set apart as a day of rest and forbade all public work on that day. This became a wonderful boon to the toiling slaves.

Constantine is especially remembered in the Church for his calling the first general council. In the year 325 he called the leading bishops, more than three hundred in number, to meet at Nicæ'a in Asia Minor to settle a controversy. He met with them and presided over their meeting. At this council was formulated the Ni'cene Creed, which is to-day accepted by nearly all the Christian churches in the world.

The adoption of Christianity as a state religion did not prove an unmixed good. It relieved the Christians of persecution, it is true, and enabled them with greater advantage to do foreign mission work; but on the other hand, it led thousands of people to join the church for selfish and political motives. Furthermore, the cross became a military standard. Before the time of Constantine the followers of the Prince of Peace disdained to propagate their religion with the sword, but many a time since then the cross has been made an emblem of war.

The reign of Constantine (306–337), surnamed the Great, was one of the most successful in the history of Rome. But not content to remain at Rome, he removed his capital to the old town of Byzantium (bĭ-zăn'shĭ-um) on the Bos'porus. Here he spent vast sums of money in planning and building a new city, beautiful for situation above all other capital cities of the world, and called it after his own name, Constantinople.

187. Julian and Theodosius. — Before Christianity had been firmly established as the religion of the empire it suffered a momentary reaction under Julian (361–363). When he became emperor he determined to restore the old faith, ordered the temples of the gods to be rebuilt, and dismissed Christian officers and commanders from his military service. He is known as Julian the Apos'tate, which means "the renouncer of his faith."

But Julian's reign was short. In a war against Persia[1] he fell in battle with a spear thrust into his body. An oft-told legend was that as he attempted to draw the weapon from the wound it cut his hand to the bone, and raising his bleeding hand before him he cried, " O Galilean, thou hast conquered ! "

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[1] A reëstablished Persia occupying most of the former Parthian empire.

Sixteen years after the death of Julian, Theodo'sius the Great (379–395), a vigorous champion of the Christian faith, became emperor. He issued edicts against pagan worship and established Christianity as the only legal religion of the empire.

Questions and Topics. — I. Describe the city of Rome in the time of Augustus. Why does a great city attract people from all sections? Are there such cities in this country? Name some advantages of country life over city life. Describe the extent of the Roman Empire. What is the greatest world empire existing to-day? What is military government or militarism? Why is it dangerous to the people's safety? Contrast it with civic government.

II. Account for the rapid progress of Christianity. Give an estimate of the character of Diocletian; of Constantine the Great. What event in Constantine's life became a turning point in the history of Christianity? In what way did the working classes benefit by the establishment of Sunday as a legal day of rest?

Events and Dates. — Pagan religions discredited by the growth of Christianity. Constantine becomes sole emperor, 323 A.D.; builds the city of Constantinople. Death of Constantine, 337.

For Further Reading. — See under last three preceding chapters.

THE TEUTONIC PEOPLES

CHAPTER XV

FALL OF ROME AND THE MIGRATION OF THE NATIONS

I. THE BARBARIANS AND THE ROMAN EMPIRE

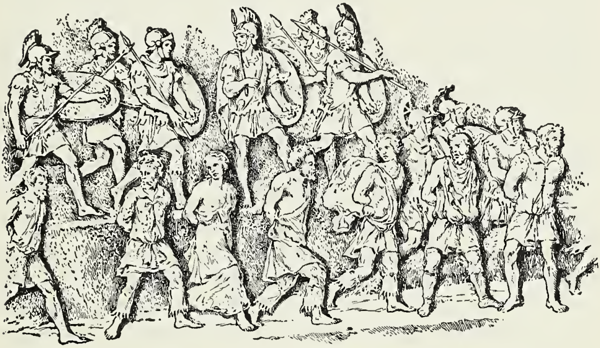
188. The Teutonic Peoples. — The word Germa'nia, or Germany, as used in the days of the Roman Empire, meant the large region from the Rhine to the Vistula, north of the upper Danube. But this was not the only land held by the Teutonic peoples. They occupied Scandinavia, what is now Ukraine, and, after the migrations, immense portions of what had been the Roman Empire. Not only are most of the Germans of to-day the descendants of those early Teutons, but so also are the Dutch, English, Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians, and great numbers of French, Spaniards, and Italians.

The Teutons were Indo-Europeans (secs. 12, 13). They were barbarians for hundreds of years after the classic peoples (Greeks and Romans) had become civilized. They lived in straggling villages and lonely cabins, disdaining city life. Their governments were very democratic, for one of their strongest passions was a love of liberty. They cultivated the soil in a rude way and raised flocks and herds.

The Teutons worshiped the forces and objects in nature, and they had no temples and no class of priests. They loved the chase and were fierce in war. Their greatest vices were drinking and gambling. But they were not devoid of virtue. Their family life was chaste and they had an intense regard for truth and plighted faith. If a man lost all he had in gambling, it often happened that he wagered his liberty, and if again he lost, he suffered himself to be bound and sold into slavery.

It was this great Teutonic race that was destined to overthrow the Roman Empire and to wrest from the classic peoples the leadership in the world's civilization.

189. **Division into Tribes.** — The Teutonic race was divided into many independent tribes, some of which played an important part in the history of the times. Among these were the Goths, who occupied the valley of the lower Danube and the northern shore of the Black Sea. · They are supposed to have come from Scandinavia in prehistoric times. They later divided into two branches known as the Visigoths (vĭz′ĭ-gŏths) or West Goths, and Os′trogoths or East Goths. It was the Goths, as we shall soon see, who were the first of the barbarians to penetrate into the empire.



CAPTIVE GOTHS

From sculptures on a column erected in Constantinople about 400 A.D. The Goths were tall and athletic, with fair complexions, blue eyes, and yellow hair, more like the Scandinavians than any other modern people. The men wore long beards. Their dress consisted of a short tunic with girdle, wide turned-down collar, and short sleeves; an inner garment to the knees; and trousers sometimes reaching to the ankle. These garments were often referred to as distinguishing the Goths from the bare-legged Romans.

North and west of the Goths dwelt the Vandals, the Burgundians, the Lombards, the Franks, the Angles, and the Saxons, who were to make deep and permanent inroads on the unwieldy possessions of the empire. Still farther north were the Northmen, ancestors of the Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes. (See map facing page 218.)

There were various reasons that impelled these Teutonic peoples to make incursions into the domains of Rome. Sometimes their sole object was to plunder; again they sought new homes when driven by Slavic peoples or by the Huns, a savage barbarian race that came from Asia. But in most cases their chief object was to seek better homes and easier conditions of life. The great wealth of the empire and its weakening government were well known to them. The luxuries of civilized life, the genial, sunny climate of Italy and Spain as contrasted with the bleak winters and dark, forbidding forests of their native North, proved irresistible in their alluring attraction to the barbarian bands.

190. The Visigoths and the Capture of Rome. — North of the lower Danube dwelt the Visigoths. About 376 they became sorely frightened at the approach of the murderous Huns and besought the Roman emperor to permit them to cross that great river and settle within the empire. The request was granted and the tribe, numbering perhaps 100,000, crossed the river. But they were so oppressed by the Roman officials that they rose in revolt. The emperor marched against them with an army, and a great battle was fought at Adriano′ple (378). The Visigoths won the victory. The imperial army was utterly routed and the emperor Va′lens was himself slain.

A year later Theodosius the Great, becoming emperor (sec. 187), pacified the barbarians and kept them under his control. On his death the governing power fell to his two worthless sons, Arca′dius, to rule at Constantinople, and Hono′rius at Rome. This proved to be a final division of the great Roman Empire into East and West. The Western Empire, however, was destined to fall under the control of Teutonic tribes within a hundred years. The Eastern Empire continued more than a thousand years longer, until Constantinople was captured by the Turks in 1453.

Soon after the death of Theodosius a great leader, Al′aric, arose among the Visigoths. Under his leadership the tribe left their eastern abode and moved into Italy, marched upon Rome (410) and took the city, after vainly attempting to make terms with Emperor Honorius. Never before had the proud city of the Tiber yielded to a foreign invader, except once, and precisely eight hundred years had passed since then (sec. 131). Alaric, it may be said, was no longer a barbarian, as he had spent many years within the empire. His followers were not all Visigoths; many were discontented Romans. He was a Christian convert and he forbade his men to destroy the churches; but the records of the time show that they plundered the palace of the Cæsars and helped themselves to the treasures of the rich.

Leaving the imperial city, Alaric moved with his hordes farther south into Italy, but within the year he died. His people moved later into southern Gaul and into Spain, where they settled and remained in control for three hundred years.

191. The Kingdom of the Vandals. — When the Visigoths arrived in Spain they found the Vandals already there. Four years before Alaric took Rome, the Vandals had crossed the Rhine on the ice and had poured into Gaul in great numbers. They ruined many cities and spent three years traversing Gaul, leaving desolation in their trail. Arriving in Spain, they settled, and here they were at the coming of the Visigoths. After years of warfare with the newcomers, the Vandals were driven out of Spain into North Africa, where they set up "the Kingdom of the Vandals."

In 455 the Vandals, under their able leader, Genseric (jĕn′sẽr-ĭk), crossed the Mediterranean and brought far greater disaster to Rome than Alaric had done in 410. They sacked the city and with the booty filled their ships waiting at the mouth of the Tiber. So reckless were they that to this day we speak of the wanton destruction of property as vandalism. But the Vandal chief, at the special request of Leo the Great, Bishop of Rome, promised to spare the city from fire and the people from massacre, and he kept his word.

192. The Invasion of Attila and the Huns. — Four years before this second sack of Rome there was fought in Gaul the battle of Chalons (shä-lôɴ′), one of the great, decisive battles of history. The Huns were under their powerful leader, At′tila, who boasted that the grass never grew where his horse had trod. He was called the "Scourge of God"; that is, the people believed that God had sent him to punish wicked nations. He devastated the East and then moved into Gaul. Here near Chalons the invading hordes were met by the Roman general Aëtius (a-ē′shĭ-us), aided by the Visigoths. A tremendous battle was fought (451). The Huns were defeated and driven back to their haunts on the Danube. Two years later Attila died, and never after were the Huns so great a menace to Europe. (Side Talk, page 220.)

The victory at Chalons was important because the Huns, had they been successful, would no doubt have destroyed the rising civilization of the Teutonic peoples.

193. The Fall of Rome; the Ostrogoths. — The City of the Seven Hills had reached a pitiable condition. Twice within half a century it had been captured and humiliated by barbarian hordes, and there were few to raise a hand in its defense. The old spirit of patriotism, the spirit that had made the name of Rome a magic name and that had led forth the legions to the world's conquest, was gone.

In 476 Odoacer (o-do-ā′ser), leader of a Teutonic tribe, deposed the last so-called Emperor of the West, Romulus Augus′tulus, a mere child,[1] and himself took the title of King of Italy. This is often referred to as the date of the "Fall of Rome" because there was no emperor of the West after this time. But the fall of Rome was a matter of centuries. For many years before the "fall" thousands of Teutons had dwelt in Italy and thousands had served in the armies. The canker had long been gnawing at the roots of the tree. The land system and the slave system had ruined Rome and the city was incapable of self-defense. There was no sudden downfall, and various other dates might serve as well as 476 to mark the fall of the Western Empire and the dividing line between ancient and medieval history.

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[1] Strictly speaking this child-emperor was not emperor at all, though he had been nominated for the crown by his father. See Robinson's *The New History*, page 194.

Not many years was Odoacer left to enjoy the fruits of his victory. A stronger man came upon the scene — Theod′oric, king of the Ostrogoths. Followed by vast hordes of his people, Theodoric entered Italy, defeated and slew Odoacer (493) and made himself king. His reign was long and was more successful than those of many of the emperors.

194. Clovis and the Franks. — Perhaps the most interesting and important of the Teutonic peoples were the Franks, who occupied the lower Rhine Valley and later what is now Belgium and northern France. They were divided into many local tribes, each with its petty king. One of these was Clo′vis (481–511), who conquered his rivals and made himself king of all the Franks. Clovis defeated the Roman governor of northern Gaul and put an end to the authority that had been established there by Julius Cæsar five centuries before. He conquered the Burgundians, who had settled in the Rhone Valley, and drove the Visigoths out of southern Gaul. Thus he became master of a great kingdom.

Clovis is remembered as the first king of France, also for leading his people to embrace Christianity. His wife Clotil′da was a Christian and often she implored him to adopt the religion of Jesus. At length when in the midst of a great battle he resolved to pray to the God of the Christians and to become a Christian himself in case he won. The battle went in his favor and straightway he was baptized together with 3000 of his warriors. His childlike conception of the new faith was shown by the following: One day when listening to the story of Christ's crucifixion he exclaimed, " If I had been there with my valiant Franks, I would have avenged him."

Clovis claimed descent from a mythical hero named Merovæ′us, and his dynasty is therefore known as the Merovin′gian kings.

195. Justinian and the Last of the Teutonic Invasions. — A half century after the fall of the empire at Rome a strong man

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Mosque of St. Sophia, Constantinople

ascended the throne at Constantinople. He was Justin'ian (527-565), who had risen from the peasant class. In order to "restore the grandeur of the empire" Justinian determined to conquer the invaders of western Europe. He sent his great general, Belisa'rius, against the Vandals of North Africa. In 534 Belisarius completely overthrew the Vandal kingdom, and the Vandals as a separate people disappeared from history. Twenty years later the armies of Justinian wrested Italy from the Ostrogoths, and they too are heard of no more as a separate people. Soon after the death of Justinian came the barbarous Lombards (568), the last of the Teutonic invaders. They occupied the Po Valley and other parts of Italy, where they remained in control for two hundred years, but they never gained the whole of Italy.

Justinian was a great builder and among his monuments was the superb cathedral of St. Sophi'a in Constantinople[1]; but his greatest claim to enduring fame lies in his code of laws. Under his direction, men collected and put into order all the most important Roman laws and legal documents of the past. This work of many volumes ranks among the great law codes, and is the most precious inheritance that ancient Rome gave to the modern world.

196. Conquest of Britain. — Rome had conquered Britain back in the early days of the empire (sec. 171, note) and had retained possession for nearly four centuries. But when the Visigoths marched on Rome the emperor withdrew his army from Britain. The Britons had lived in harmony with the Roman army and had been protected by it so long that they had lost the art of warfare. When the Romans withdrew, the Picts of Scotland began to pour across Hadrian's wall from the north, and the Scots approached from Ireland. The Britons appealed to the Romans to come back and help them, but Rome could do nothing.

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[1] The church built by Justinian was converted into a Turkish mosque, as shown in the picture opposite. The building is square, surmounted by a great dome, with half domes on two sides. The open arcades of the second story contain the women's seats. The great disks on the walls of the second story have Turkish inscriptions. The marble pavement is partly covered with prayer carpets spread in the direction of Mecca, towards which the Mohammedan faces when at prayer. All the columns are of costly marbles and the walls are covered with mosaics which the Turks concealed with whitewash. St. Sophia is the most famous example of Byzan'tine architecture, the style developed in the Eastern Roman Empire. It is considered the most beautiful church ever erected.

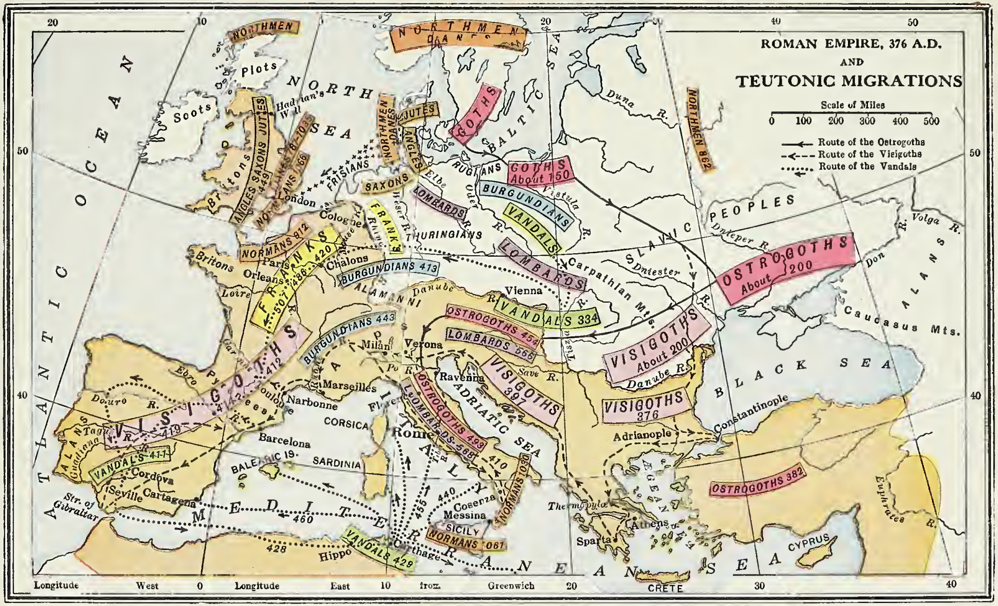
The Britons then invited the Jutes, a small Teutonic tribe from across the North Sea, to come and aid them. The Jutes came about 449, but soon they were fighting the Britons who had invited them. Later came also Saxons and Angles, neighbors of the Jutes in northern Germany, and after long and bloody wars the Britons were slain or driven into Wales. The three Teutonic tribes became the ancestors of the English, and the Angles gave their name to the new country — Angleland or England.

197. **Blending of the Peoples.** — When the Teutonic tribes moved into Gaul, Spain, and Italy, they found a numerous population, and these countries became the melting pot of the nations. The invaders did not attempt to exterminate or enslave the natives; they settled among them, and some even adopted their language and customs and intermarried with them. In the course of centuries the two peoples blended into one. Thus it will be seen that the modern Italian, Spaniard, and Frenchman has a liberal spray of Teutonic blood in his veins, while the English are almost wholly Teutonic.

The barbarians who settled among the old Roman population were a strong, vigorous people, but they were illiterate and had no appreciation of art, science, or literature. The result was that the level of culture and intelligence was lowered, and in the long process of blending of the two races there was much disorder and violence as well as ignorance. Europe had entered on the period known as the Dark Ages.

II. Review of the Ancient Nations

198. **Ancient Civilizations.** — Briefly we have followed the progress of the early nations in ancient times. Endowed with an intellect denied to the lower animals, man struggled with the forces of nature, rising little by little from a state of savagery through



various stages of barbarism to a higher civilization. How many ages this struggle continued before the dawn of historic times is unknown to us. Already man had made wonderful progress — he expressed himself in language, he knew the use of fire and of metals, he was a builder of cities, a keeper of flocks, and a tiller of the ground. He had put a measureless distance between himself and the highest of the animals beneath him.

At length man learns to record his thought by means of characters he has invented, chiseling them in stone or stamping them in clay. He begins to make a record of his own doings — and historic times have begun.

The light of history first breaks, almost simultaneously, upon the valleys of the two great rivers — the Euphrates and the Nile. Later the people of these two river valleys, the Egyptians and the Babylonians, are joined by the Phœnicians and Hebrews; and the four peoples hold the leadership in civilization for thousands of years. Meanwhile they struggle on and up; they build colossal pyramids and temples and great cities; they make systems of laws; they invent an alphabet, and they improve in agriculture and handicraft. Europe during this long period was in a state of barbarism, similar to that in which Columbus found America.

More than a thousand years before Christ, Egypt had passed her zenith and had begun to decline; Babylonia was subdued by the warlike Assyrians of the upper Tigris. For half a thousand years Assyria held the world in bondage; then she, too, was conquered, and mighty Nineveh, the city "gorged with prey," was blotted from the face of the earth.

The Persians, the first of the Indo-European peoples to make a record in the world's life, were the next to rise to the supreme height. But the reign of the Persians was short. Five or six hundred years before Christ, the scepter passed across the narrow channel and the Greeks became the leaders of civilization. We admire the Greeks for their wonderful proficiency in literature, in philosophy, in sculpture and architecture, but we deplore their weakness in government, their inability to unite in a great empire

After three or four hundred years of supremacy the Greeks were subdued by the Romans, a kindred people speaking a kindred language, the last and greatest of the ancient peoples. In law and government the Romans surpassed all other nations of antiquity. The City of the Seven Hills, after subduing the Italian lands, sent forth her armies for world conquest. One after another the nations about the Mediterranean fell until none remained. Rome was mistress of the civilized world.

The centuries passed. The glory of conquest no longer lured the warrior to deeds of valor or to self-denying virtue. The wealth of all lands poured into Rome, and Rome was corrupted by the luxuries of wealth. Except among the Christian converts here and there private virtue was scarcely known. The pleasures of the people were found in the sordid shows of blood and slaughter; life had little meaning; an appalling languor overspread the vast empire. The rich oppressed the poor; the masses were paupers and slaves; the great middle class, without which no nation can live and be strong, ceased to exist. Rome was tottering to its fall. The barbarian hordes poured in from the north and humbled the proud city of the Tiber.

The Classic peoples (Greeks and Romans) had led the world for a thousand years, but the day of their power was gone. The virile Teutonic peoples (secs. 188–197), slowly emerging from barbarism, assumed the leadership and have held it from that day to this — nearly fifteen hundred years. Strong of body and strong of intellect they were, but as yet crude and uncultured and incapable of utilizing the splendid achievements of the civilizations of the past. Beginning almost at the bottom, they passed through long dark centuries of training. This period, the prelude to the Middle Ages, is to be treated in the following chapters.

SIDE TALK

Attila and the Huns. — The great leader of the Huns was so pleased with the cognomen "Scourge of God," given him by the Christians, that he adopted it. He was repulsive in appearance. He was of dark complexion; his head was large, his nose flat, his eyes deep-seated and small. He artfully played on the superstition of his people. Among the stories of him that the people believed was one relating that the ancient Sword of Mars had been discovered and delivered to him with the injunction that he make himself master of the world. Attila soon made himself master of vast sections of central and eastern Europe.

The rich lands of Gaul lured the great barbarian monarch to the west, and he determined to add them to his dominions. With fire and sword he devastated the country, massacring the people; but it was said that Paris was saved through the prayers of Saint Gen'evieve. When the battle of Chalons began Attila stood in the front of the battle line and cast the first javelin. The slaughter of men was tremendous. Nothing but the coming of nightfall saved the Huns from a complete rout. The remnant of their army couched during the night within a great circle of wagons with which they had made an embankment. Attila was determined not to be taken alive. He made a great pile of saddles from his cavalry horses and determined to set it on fire and rush into the flames and perish rather than fall into the hands of the enemy. But the victors were too greatly weakened to renew the battle next morning, and the Huns made their way to their haunts in the east, never to return.

Questions and Topics. — What were the chief vices and virtues of the early Teutonic peoples? Describe the capture of Rome by the Visigoths and their later migration to Spain. What do we mean by the word vandalism and how did it originate? Why is 476 often given as the year of the fall of Rome? Who was Clovis? Describe the method of his conversion. Why is Justinian remembered in history? Who were the Jutes, Saxons, and Angles, and how did they come to migrate to Britain? What is the origin of the name England? Show how the American people are in a large degree of Teutonic origin.

Events and Dates. — Victory of the Visigoths at Adrianople, 378 A.D. They capture Rome, 410, and later move into Spain. The Vandals move into Africa. Huns defeated at Chalons, 451. "Fall" of Rome, 476. Clovis, d. 511, founds the Kingdom of the Franks (France). Justinian the lawgiver, d. 565. Jutes, Saxons, and Angles occupy Britain, 449 and later.

For Further Reading. — Church, *Beginning of the Middle Ages.* Oman, *The Dark Ages.* Wolfson, *Essentials in Ancient History.* The writings of Seneca, Epictetus, and of Marcus Aurelius are in many libraries, but many of their writings are quoted in Farrar's *Seekers after God.*

CHAPTER XVI

RISE OF THE PAPACY; MOHAMMEDANISM

I. Rise of the Papacy

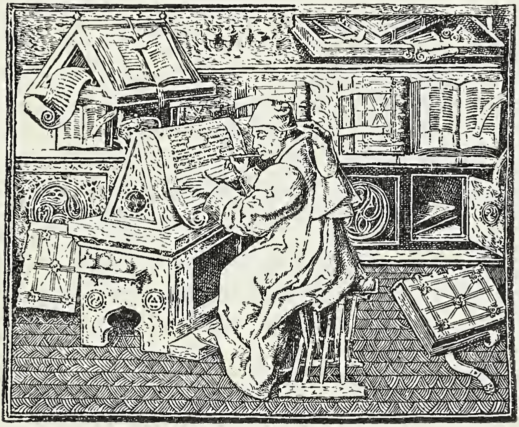
199. Conversion of the Invaders. — The menace to the civilization of Europe would have been appalling had the Teutonic invaders of the Empire remained pagan. But every tribe that came was converted to the Christian religion. Indeed it was the Christian religion that served as the great welding agent in the blending of the Roman and barbarian peoples into one.

The religion of the invading Teutons was as dark and forbidding as the forests they abandoned. The Roman Christians preached to them with unwearied zeal, preached to them a new doctrine, a doctrine of light and hope that gave them a new view of life and placed a new and infinite value on the individual soul. The barbarians proved ready hearers and wholesale conversions were not unusual.

Many of them, however, accepted the form of Christianity known as A′rianism, from A′rius of Alexandria, who taught that Christ was not God, but merely a perfect being whom God created. His followers were called Arians, while the opposite party were known as Athana′sians or orthodox Christians. The general council at Nicæa (sec. 186) decided against Arianism, but the controversy continued for several centuries before the Arians finally yielded.

200. Monks and Monasteries. — In the early Christian centuries there were men whose religious fervor was so intense that they fled from human society and lived in solitude in caves or deserts. They were called monks, from a word meaning alone. They believed that they could live holier lives by remaining apart from the temptations of the human world, living as hermits and spending their time in fasting, prayer, and self-inflicted mortification. The name monks was also given to men living in communities apart from the world.

One of the monks, Saint Benedict, founded a monastery early in the sixth century and wrote a Rule under which many monasteries were founded in the West. These western monks did not live an idle life. They cultivated the lands about the monasteries, wrote and copied books, and sent out missionaries.



Monk Copying a Manuscript in a Monastery Library

There were no printing presses in those days; books were made by hand and it required years of labor to copy a large book with the pen. Many of the best books of the ancient world were preserved through the labors of the monks.

Benedict suggested a triple rule for his monks — poverty, chastity, and obedience. They were not permitted to marry or to hold property, though the monastery itself often became wealthy. Other orders of monks and of friars were founded later and during the Middle Ages they were a great force in the church.

201. Beginnings of the Papal Power. — The greatest power in the Middle Ages was the power of the church as represented by the Pope at Rome. The head of the church in a large city was known as a bishop, and had general charge of the churches of the community. The bishop of Rome claimed authority over other bishops. The church was called Catholic, which means Universal.

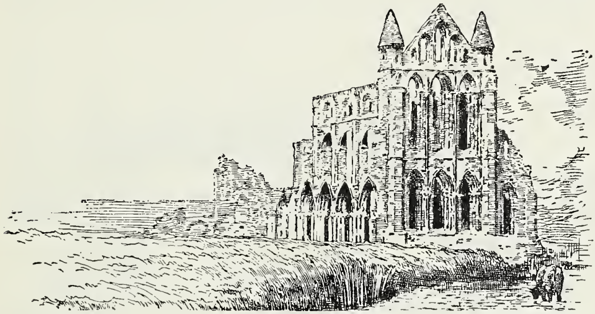
The power and authority of the papacy were greatly enhanced by the accession of Leo the Great (440–461). With vigor and success this prelate, who was a man of great sincerity and ability, emphasized the doctrine that the bishop of Rome as the successor of Saint Peter was the head of all Christendom. At his suggestion the western emperor issued a decree recognizing the authority of the bishop of Rome as supreme. It was several hundred years later before the name pope (Latin *papa*, "father"), given to all the bishops in the early period, came to be given exclusively to the bishop of Rome. At the time of Leo the authority of the pope was acknowledged by all western Christendom, though the greater part of the eastern church with headquarters at Constantinople refused to acknowledge it and has never done so to this day.

The authority of the Catholic Church grew mightily during the centuries that immediately followed the Teutonic invasions. The government of the empire was weak and incompetent and the people looked to the church for advice and guidance in secular as well as in spiritual affairs. Thus the church became stronger and before the close of the Middle Ages the pope was by far the most powerful ruler in Europe.

202. Conversion of England and Germany.—Not only the tribes that migrated to southern Europe, but the English also and the Germans who remained in the north were won over to Christianity.

About 432 Saint Patrick, who had been a British slave, made his way to Ireland as a missionary. With drum and trumpet he drew people to him, and is said to have converted the entire island. About a century later Saint Colum'ba carried the gospel to Scotland and founded the Scottish Church.

Still later came Augus'tine to England. Pope Greg'ory the Great (590–604) was so attracted by some young Englishmen whom he saw in the slave market at Rome, that he determined to send missionaries to England. In 597 Augustine was sent with a body of monks. Their success was very marked and within a few decades England was numbered among the Christian countries.



WHITBY ABBEY

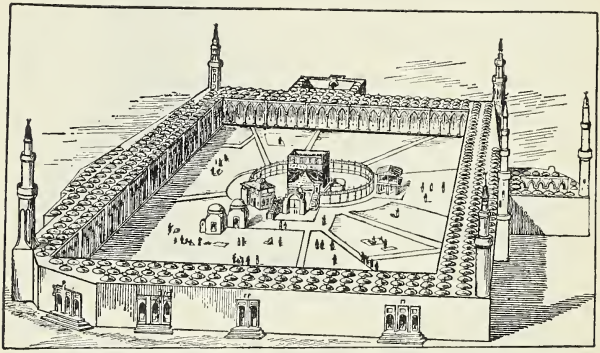
A Benedictine monastery founded in England in 657 A.D. The ruin stands on a high cliff overlooking the North Sea. In 1914 it was partially destroyed by German shell fire, during a bombardment of the neighboring seaport.

What Augustine did for England, Saint Bon'iface did for Germany. He was a man of great religious fervor and untiring energy. Penetrating far into the German forests, he persuaded one tribe after another to accept the religion of Christ. He founded many churches and a number of bishoprics. After spending a long life in the cause he loved so ardently, he died a martyr's death (754). Saint Boniface is known as the "Apostle of Germany."

II. MOHAMMEDANISM AND THE ARAB INVASION

203. Mohammed and his Religion. — Christianity was six hundred years old when a rival religion was born on the far-away

Arabian plains. There were Christians and Jews among the Arabians, but the great mass of the people were idolaters. The city of Mecca, not far from the Red Sea, was a center of Arabian worship. Here was the Caaba (kä'a-ba), a square building containing some hundreds of idols, including the famous black stone. This sacred stone was the most precious thing in Arabia. The Arabs said that it was dazzling white when brought to earth by the angel Gabriel, but that it had been turned black by the sins of the men who had touched it.



The Caaba, Surrounded by Colonnades of the Mosque

The pilgrimage to Mecca is the most sacred observance of Mohammedanism. Pilgrims from all Mohammedan countries gather at the sacred mosque. The city of Mecca is about 45 miles, two camel marches, inland from the Red Sea. A railroad from the north will soon reach Mecca; it already extends as far as Medina.

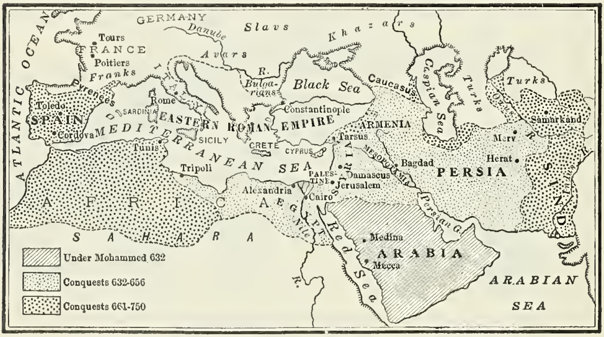
In Mecca about the year 570 the prophet Moham'med was born. As a youth he was distant and meditative. He was a camel driver without fortune, but when middle-aged he married a rich widow and was raised above want. He now had more time for meditation and he brooded over the idolatrous religion of his people. Many a solitary night he spent among the mountains, gazing into the silent sky. At length he began to see visions and to hear voices. Believing that the angel Gabriel appeared to him and revealed to him a new religion, he began to preach. At first his converts were few; he awakened the hostility of his townsmen, and was forced to flee from his native city. This flight from Mecca to Medina (mă̇-dē′nä), which took place in 622, was called the Hegira (hĕj′ĭ-ra or hĕ̇-jī′ra; Arabian for "flight"), and from this year the Mohammedans reckon time. Mohammed believed that his religion should be propagated by the sword. Eight years after his flight from Mecca he returned to that city a conqueror, destroyed its idols, and made it the center of his religious kingdom. When he died, in 632, all Arabia had become Mohammedan.

The religion of Mohammed was set forth in the Koran (ko-rän′), the Mohammedan Bible. Mohammed had often met Jews and Christians, and he borrowed freely from their religion. He recognized Moses and Christ and others as true prophets, but regarded himself as the last and greatest prophet of all. His creed was simply the few words, "There is no god but Allah, and Mohammed is his prophet." On his followers he enjoined a simple life — fasting, abstaining from strong drink, giving alms, going on a pilgrimage to Mecca, and praying five times a day with face turned toward Mecca and head bowed to the ground. Polygamy is permitted, and woman in the Mohammedan world occupies a degraded position.

204. Mohammedan Conquests; Battle of Tours. — The religion of Mohammed is called Is′lam, and his followers are called Mos′lems. Jesus had sent forth his followers to conquer the world by preaching love; the Arabian prophet sent his to conquer with the sword.

No band of men ever set out on a great task with more fanatical zeal than the followers of Mohammed in their attempt to conquer the world for the new religion. Great numbers of men were drawn to their ranks. Within a few years they had conquered Mesopotamia and Persia. Near the site of ancient Babylon they built the magnificent city of Bagdad (bȧg-däd′).

They conquered Syria and Palestine and erected a mosque (Mohammedan church) on the site of the temple of Solomon at Jerusalem. Crossing over into Egypt, the Moslem hosts captured Alexandria after a long siege and soon had possession of all Egypt. Moving through North Africa, they bore down all opposition and made subjects and converts of every people until they reached the western coast. Fifty years after the death of the prophet a great part of the civilized world had been subdued and the Moslem banners were waving over all lands from the Indus Valley in India westward through North Africa to the Atlantic. How could Europe escape?


GERMANY
Danube
Slavs
Khazars
Tours
FRANCE
Avars
Poitiers
Franks
R.
Bulgarians
Black Sea
Caucasus
Caspian Sea
Turks
Turks
Oxus R.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Pyrenees
Toledo
SPAIN
Cordova
Rome
SARDINIA
EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE
Constantinople
ARMENIA
Samarkand
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SICILY
CRETE
CYPRUS
Tarsus
Merv
Tunis
Tripoli
SYRIA
MESOPOTAMIA
Bagdad
Herat
PERSIA
PALESTINE
Damascus
Jerusalem
Alexandria
Cairo
AFRICA
EGYPT
Nile
Red Sea
Persian G.
SIND
Indus R.
SAHARA
Medina
ARABIA
Mecca
R.
ARABIAN SEA
Under Mohammed 632
Conquests 632-656
Conquests 661-750

Mohammedan Dominions

More than a thousand years had passed since the Greeks of Europe had taken the scepter of civilization from the hands of the Semitic Orient, and in the meantime Christianity had become the religion of the western world. It seemed now that the tide was turning. Certainly the menace to Christianity was very great.

In the East and in the West the Mohammedan hordes soon made attacks on Europe. At Constantinople they were repulsed by the Eastern Roman Empire; but they crossed from

Africa into Spain (711) and within a few years had destroyed the kingdom of the Visigoths and taken possession of the land.

France was the next to be attacked, and if the Franks should be subdued, it was difficult to see how England, Germany, and Italy could escape.

Under a powerful leader the Moslem hosts crossed the Pyrenees and moved far northward into France. Then came another of the decisive battles of history, the battle of Tours (to͞or). It turned back the Mohammedan tide and saved Europe and the western world to Christianity. This battle was fought in 732, exactly one hundred years after the death of Mohammed. The hero was Charles Martel′, the intrepid leader of the Franks. The Moslems were driven back into Spain, where they built up a civilization and remained for nearly eight hundred years; but never again did they get a foothold north of the Pyrenees.

SIDE TALK

Charles Martel and his Victory. — Seldom in the annals of mankind has the future of the world's history so completely hinged on a single battle as on the battle of Tours, 732, sometimes called the battle of Poitiers (pwȧ-tyā′). The battle ground was between the towns of Tours and Poitiers. The Mohammedan leader, Abd-er-Rahman, was a daring commander; with his mighty host he had swept through southern France, leaving frightful desolation in his trail. Had he been successful at Tours, as the historian Gibbons says, " perhaps the interpretation of the Koran would now be taught in the schools of Oxford."

Charles, later called Martel (the Hammer), was the one hope of France. The people cried out to him for deliverance. He prepared to meet the invaders but did not hurry. He said, " If you follow my advice you will not intercept their march. They are like a torrent, which it is dangerous to stem in its career. The thirst for riches and the consciousness of success redouble their valor, and valor is of more avail than arms or numbers. Be patient till they have loaded themselves with the encumbrances of wealth. The possession will divide their councils and assure your victory."

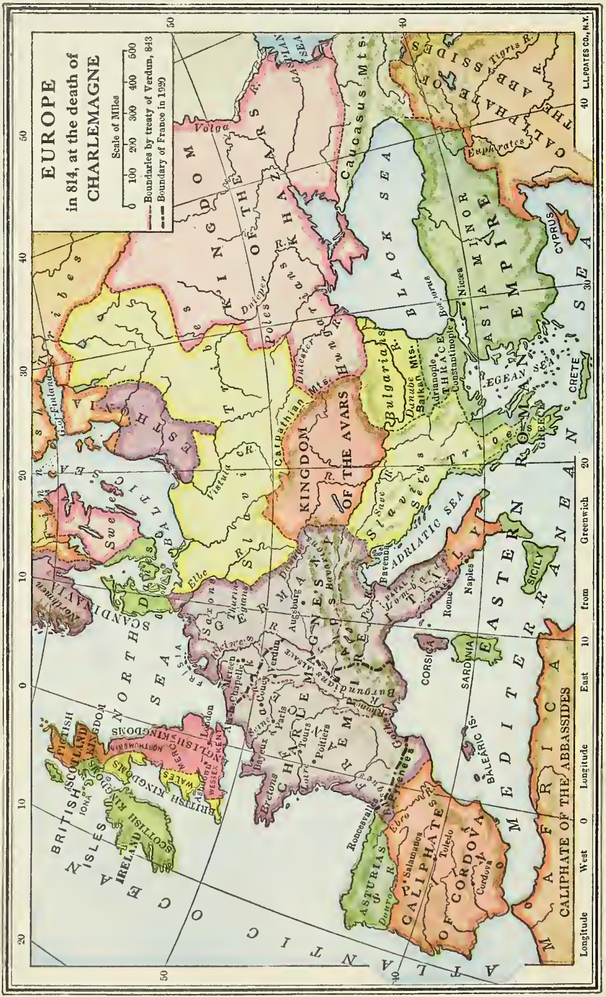
Meanwhile he collected a motley army — Goths and Romans, Franks and Germans. When the two armies met six days were spent in sparring for position, with only desultory fighting. On the seventh day occurred the great battle. The Mohammedan leader was killed. His army, after great numbers had been slain, retired to their camp at night, but hastened away to the southward before the coming of daylight. Some time later they recrossed the Pyrenees. Martel and his valiant army had won a famous victory which the world will never forget.

Questions and Topics. — I. What significance would you attach to the fact that the Teutonic invaders were converted to Christianity? Who were the monks and how did they employ their time? What is meant by the papal power? What do you know about Leo the Great? Describe the conversion of England and Germany to Christianity.

II. Tell about the early life of Mohammed. What is meant by the Hegira? In what way did Mohammed decide to propagate his religion? Name some points of difference between Mohammedanism and Christianity. Why is Mohammedanism not succeeding among the great enlightened nations of the world? What importance would you attach to the victory of Charles Martel at the battle of Tours?

Events and Dates. — Conversion of the Germanic invaders to Christianity. Leo the Great, d. 461 A.D. Great missionaries, Saints Patrick, Augustine, and Boniface. Birth of Mohammed, 570. Conquest of Arabia, Mesopotamia, Palestine, North Africa, and Spain. Great victory of Charles Martel at Tours, 732.

For Further Reading. — Gardiner, *Student's History of England.* Green, *Short History of the English People.* In these histories are found good short accounts of the Saxon invasion of England, and of the conversion of England. If a set of Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* is in the library, the pupils should read chapter 7 and others at the direction of the teacher. Gibbon gives an excellent account of the rise of Mohammedanism.



EUROPE
in 814, at the death of
CHARLEMAGNE

Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Boundaries by treaty of Verdun, 843
Boundary of France in 1920

BRITISH ISLES
SCOTTISH KINGDOMS
IRELAND
IONA
PICTISH KINGDOM
SCOTLAND
BRITISH KINGDOMS
WALES
ENGLISH KINGDOMS
NORTHUMBRIA
MERCIA
WESSEX
KENT
London
NORTH SEA
SCANDINAVIA
Northmen
Danes
Swedes
BALTIC SEA
FRISIA
Aachen
Meersen
Verdun
Paris
Tours
Poitiers
Bayeux
Bretons
CHARLEMAGNE'S EMPIRE
Saxons
Thuringians
Bavarians
Alsace
Burgundians
Goths
Augsburg
Elbe
Rhine
Danube
Seine
Loire
Rhone
Pyrenees
Roncesvalles
ASTURIAS
CALIPHATE OF CORDOVA
Salamanca
Toledo
Cordova
Ebro
Douro
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA
SARDINIA
SICILY
Rome
Naples
Ravenna
PAPAL STATES
Lombards
ADRIATIC SEA
Po R.
Slavs
Serbs
Croats
KINGDOM OF THE AVARS
Bulgarians
Adrianople
THRACE
Constantinople
Balkan Mts.
Carpathian Mts.
Dniester
Dnieper
Vistula
Poles
Slavic Tribes
Esthonia
Finnish Tribes
G. of Finland
KINGDOM OF THE KHAZARS
Volga
CASPIAN SEA
Caucasus Mts.
BLACK SEA
Bosporus
Nicaea
ASIA MINOR
EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE
AEGEAN SEA
GREECE
CRETE
CYPRUS
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
CALIPHATE OF THE ABBASSIDES
Tigris R.
Euphrates
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Longitude West 0 Longitude East from Greenwich
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CHAPTER XVII

CHARLEMAGNE AND HIS TIMES

205. The Kingdom of the Franks. — Of all the Teutonic peoples the Franks became the most powerful in the Middle Ages. They were the founders of the French nation. King Clovis, as we have seen, subdued all his enemies, founded a kingdom, and established Christianity there (sec. 194). But many of the Merovingian kings, the descendants of Clovis, were weak in comparison. The chief officer in the kingdom was the mayor of the palace, and this officer in time became far more powerful than his master. It is said that the king had nothing to do but to wear flowing hair and a long beard and sit on the throne and play the ruler.

It was the mayors of the palace, after Clovis, that made the Franks a great nation. One of these mayors was the Charles Martel who defeated the Mohammedan legions at the battle of Tours (sec. 204).

Charles Martel died in 741, and his son Pep′in succeeded him as mayor of the palace. Pepin determined to make himself king in name as well as in power. The old king was thereupon shorn of his long hair and beard and sent to a monastery; and in 751 Pepin was anointed King of the Franks by Saint Boniface, the Apostle of Germany (sec. 202).

Not many years after this the pope had occasion to call upon Pepin for assistance. The Lombards, who had been the strongest power in Italy for two hundred years, were threatening to capture Rome. At the pope's call Pepin came to Italy, defeated the Lombards, and established the pope as ruler of the "Papal States" or "States of the Church," a strip of land extending from Rome entirely across the peninsula. This grant to the pope, known as "The Donation of Pepin," was made in 754; and the resulting "temporal power" of the pope, as monarch of an Italian province, continued for more than 1100 years, — until 1860.

206. Charlemagne. — Here and there in the world's history we find a character who stands out grandly conspicuous among his fellows, a character who makes an impress on his race never to be effaced. One of these was Charlemagne (shär′lē-mān, the French form of the Latin Căr′olus Magnus, Charles the Great), son of Pepin. Charlemagne was born the year after the death of his grandfather, Charles Martel. He was a tall man, though his father is known in history as Pepin the Short. The kings descended from Charlemagne are called the Carolin′gian dynasty.

A mass of legend and romance grew up about the name of Charlemagne after his death, but aside from this, history informs us that his career was one of the most notable in the annals of Europe. He was the greatest figure of the Middle Ages.

Perhaps no other layman in the history of the church did so much for its upbuilding as Charlemagne, but his methods were not always in accord with Christian principles. He united nearly all of western and central Europe in one great empire and prepared the way for the founding of the great nations of modern times. Charlemagne was an untiring warrior. He made fifty-three campaigns.

207. Charlemagne Conquers the Saxons. — The most notable achievement of the great Frankish king was the conquest of the Saxons. In this he was engaged at intervals for thirty-two years. The Saxons occupied territory east of the Rhine, extending to the Elbe River on the east and to the North and Baltic seas on the north. While their fellow Teutonic tribes, the Franks, the Goths, the Lombards, and others had been converted to Christianity, the Saxons had remained barbarians and pagans. They had no cities, and when hard pressed by an enemy they could easily pack up their belongings and flee into the forests. To conquer them was a difficult task, but Charlemagne persisted till all Saxony was added to his empire.

For two reasons Charlemagne desired to make subjects of the Saxons — because they were a menace to his kingdom and because he wished to convert them to Christianity. It was contrary to the Christian spirit to make converts by force, but the Frankish king disregarded this and gave his captives their choice between baptism and death. He decreed the sentence of death or other severe punishment for all who paid homage to their old gods or refused to have their children baptized before they were a year old.

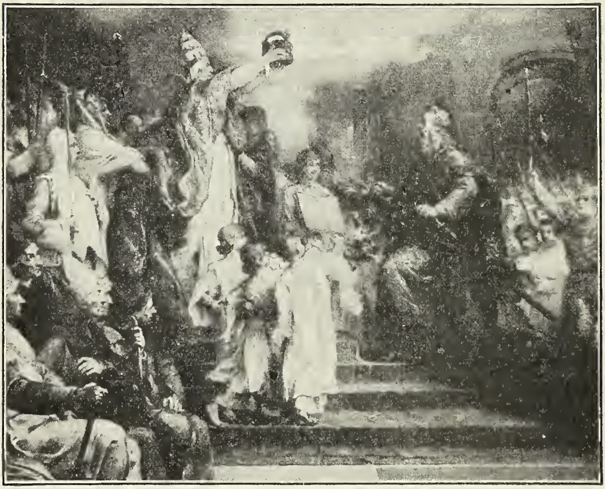
208. Extension of the Kingdom. — The long contest with the Saxons was not continuous, and some of the intervals were taken up with campaigns in other directions.

One of his campaigns was into Spain against the Mohammedans or Saracens (săr′a-sĕnz), often called the Moors, who had overthrown the kingdom of the Visigoths (sec. 204). The Franks won an easy victory, capturing towns and castles and taking possession of the country north of the Ebro River. But the Moors continued to occupy the greater part of Spain for seven hundred years longer.

The Danes, who were troublesome pirates, the Bava′rians, and many other peoples were subdued by the restless Charlemagne. One of the most notable conquests was that of the Lombards in Italy. After their conquest by Pepin (sec. 205), the Lombards rose again and the pope appealed to the Frankish king; Charlemagne came and utterly destroyed the Lombard power and was himself crowned king of the Lombards.

Charlemagne created a vast empire extending from the Atlantic Ocean to the Elbe and the Danube, and from the North and Baltic Seas to the Mediterranean. The fame and glory of the great monarch of the Franks spread over the world and kings and rulers of other countries sent him letters of homage, some even calling themselves his servants.

209. Founding of the Holy Roman Empire. — In the year 800, on Christmas Day, while Charlemagne was kneeling in St. Peter's Church at Rome, Pope Leo III suddenly placed a crown of gold on his head and those present hailed him as emperor. The king seemed surprised and later said that he would not have entered the church had he known what was to happen; but it is certain he had long contemplated the restoration of the Western Empire which had been ended by Odoacer more than three hundred years before (sec. 193).



Pope Leo III Crowning Charlemagne

From a modern painting in Paris.

From this time he was called emperor, and the Western Empire, thus revived, remained apart from the Eastern Empire, the two flourishing side by side until the capture of Constantinople by the Turks six and a half centuries later.

This revival of the Western Empire in 800 was a great event in European history. France was soon cut off, and later Italy, and in time the empire meant little else than Germany; but in spite of this it came later to be called the Holy Roman Empire and it played a great part in European politics for a thousand years.

210. Home Life of Charlemagne. — Charlemagne was strong and robust, with large, round head, short neck, brilliant eyes, and a merry, laughing face. His step was firm and manly, and his dress, except on state occasions, was the plain garb of the Franks. He was fond of riding and hunting, temperate in eating and drinking, with the greatest abhorrence of drunkenness. He was of a most kindly nature and liberal in feeding the poor. When he went on long journeys he took his sons and daughters with him. He never permitted his daughters to marry, declaring that he could not dispense with their society.

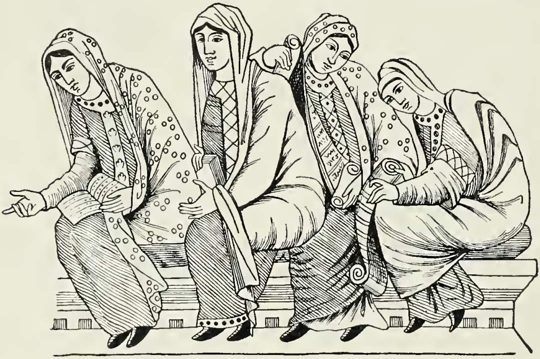
Charlemagne did all in his power to foster education. He issued orders to the clergy to gather the children of their neighborhoods and teach them to read. He called learned men to his court, the most famous of whom was Al′cuin of England, the most learned man of his time. The emperor himself was a diligent student, giving much time to learning languages, rhetoric, logic, and astronomy. He learned chiefly by hearing lectures, as he was himself scarcely able to read.

He made Aix-la-Chapelle (sha-pĕl′) his capital and in that city he built a magnificent church and furnished it luxuriously. A great many churches were built by his orders and at his expense in various parts of his empire.

After a long reign of nearly forty-seven years Charlemagne died of fever at the age of seventy-one (814).

211. Breaking up of the Empire; Treaty of Verdun. — The death of Charlemagne meant also the shattering of the great empire he had built up. His son and successor, Louis the Pious, lacked all the great qualities of his father. The many peoples who had been brought under one government were so unlike in their customs and ideals that only a strong hand could hold them together. Louis was weak and incapable. Moreover, when in his later years he attempted to divide his possessions among his sons, they fought with one another and with their father.

Louis died in 840, and three years later his three sons made the famous treaty of Verdun, by which the extensive empire of their grandfather was broken into three grand divisions. Charles, who is known in history as Charles the Bald, received the western section, which later became France; Louis, who came to be known as Louis the German, received the greater part of what became Germany and Austria. Between these two was a great section running through the heart of Europe by way of the Rhine Valley from the North Sea to and including Italy. This was awarded to Lothair′, the eldest of the brothers, and it was he who retained the title of emperor.



Costumes of Frankish Ladies of the Nobility, Ninth Century

Illumination in the Bible of Charles the Bald, National Library, Paris. The ladies can evidently read, for all are holding rolls of parchment or manuscript books.

The middle kingdom at length fell to pieces, and parts of it, as Alsace (al-säs′) and Lorraine (lo-rān′), have been the object of strife between France and Germany from that day to the present.

The treaty of Verdun did not bring a lasting peace. Again in the treaty of Mersen (870) a final division was attempted; but the descendants of Charlemagne continued to fight one another. In addition to domestic turmoil these rulers were obliged to defend their lands from invasions on all sides. The Slavs made bloody incursions from the east; the daring Northmen came down from Scandinavia, seized and occupied many towns and forts; the Saracens of North Africa seized Sicily and terrorized Italy and southern France. In fact, for two or three centuries after the death of Charlemagne Europe was a seething caldron of rival rulers and struggling nations. The history of the wars of this period would interest us but little. We shall pass on to a notice of some of the institutions of the Middle Ages.

Questions and Topics. — Describe the personal appearance of Charlemagne; his home life, his conquests, his crowning. What did he do for education? Why did his empire not hold together after his death? What notable treaty was made by his three grandsons? What portion of the empire fell to each? Which in your opinion is better for civilization, great empires or small independent nations? What reasons would you give for your opinion?

Events and Dates. — Reign of Charlemagne, 768–814, the greatest character of the Middle Ages; crowned at Rome in 800. By the treaty of Verdun, 843, his three grandsons divided the empire. Since then France and Germany have remained apart.

For Further Reading. — The life of Charlemagne by Eginhard or Einhard, a confidential friend, is a short, interesting book that can easily be obtained in English translation. It has been pronounced "one of the most precious bequests of the early middle ages." Hodgkin's *Charles the Great* is an excellent brief biography; also Davis's *Charlemagne* in the "Heroes of the Nations" series. Robinson's *Readings in European History*, I, 131–134. A good short account of Charlemagne and his empire will be found in Chap. V of *General History of Europe* by Thatcher and Schevill.

THE LIFE OF THE MIDDLE AGES

CHAPTER XVIII

FEUDALISM AND CHIVALRY

I. Feudalism

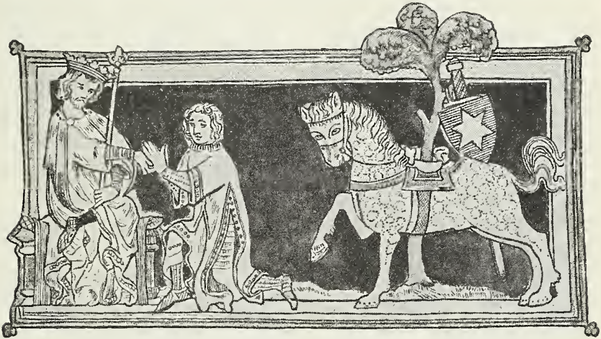
212. Rise of Feudalism; Lords and Vassals. — Within a century or two after the death of Charlemagne his empire was broken into many parts. The nominal rulers of the sections were called kings, and usually one of them retained the title of emperor. These rulers, however, could not govern their own dominions; the real power was in the hands of the great nobles, who were independent of one another and but slightly dependent upon the king.

In the early times when money was scarce the king often paid his chief officers in land. This land became hereditary, and the office also. These great landholders were said to hold their estates in fief or in feud from the king. They became almost sovereign rulers, and though they were supposed to owe the king their allegiance and service, it often happened that they rendered no service. They were independent. Their estates were so extensive that they again parceled them out to others and these still again to a lower class.

A landlord who thus parceled out his domains was called a lord, a liege, or suzerain; each man receiving a fief was his vassal, or liegeman.

The great lords or nobles, though nominal vassals of the king, had the right to make laws, keep troops, and coin money, but these privileges were not granted to the lower suzerains. When a vassal received a fief from a lord he went through a ceremony called paying homage. Kneeling before the lord, he placed his hands within the hands of the lord, declaring himself the lord's "man" (Latin, *homo*, whence the word homage), and took an oath that he would faithfully perform the duties of a vassal.

This land system called feudalism was very extensive; during the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries it held in its iron grasp nearly all the land in central and western Europe. In France during the Middle Ages there were perhaps 150 overlords, each holding an immense estate. These great estates were subdivided into about 70,000 fiefs or smaller estates. The lord often bore such title as duke, earl, count, or baron. Often he was ignorant and rough. He scorned every occupation but that of arms. He lived among boisterous companions as rough and ignorant as himself.



VASSAL DOING HOMAGE TO HIS KING

From an illuminated manuscript of the ninth century.

Churches, monasteries, and priests were often vassals of some suzerain; but the higher churchmen, bishops and archbishops, were not infrequently themselves suzerains with vassals dependent on them.

213. Duties of Lords and Vassals. — The great duty of the lord to his vassal was to protect him from wrong and injustice, and his lands from invasion.

The duty of the vassal was to render service to his master. For his lands he might be required to pay an annual rental, or part of the produce, or both. He was also subject to special taxes. When the lord knighted his eldest son, or gave the eldest daughter in marriage, he would demand a sum of money from his vassal. When a vassal died, his son on entering upon the estate had to pay to the lord his entire income for a year. A bishop or priest had to pay his lord his first year's salary after his appointment.

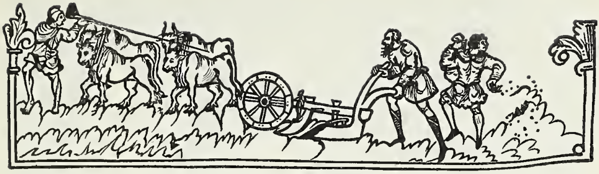
But the chief duty of the vassal was to serve his liege lord in war. This service was limited to forty days in a year. Fighting in the Middle Ages was chiefly on horseback. If the lord was unhorsed in battle, his vassal had to give him his own horse; if in special danger, the vassal defended him with his life, and if the lord was taken prisoner, his vassal offered himself as a hostage.

214. Serfs and Freemen. — The great mass of the people were the peasants who toiled in the fields and at the grist mills, earning their own living as well as that of their masters. They were divided into two classes, — serfs and freemen.

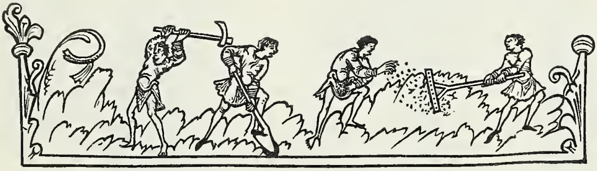
The slavery of the Roman Empire gradually merged into the serfdom of the Middle Ages. The serfs could not be bought and sold as slaves, but they were attached to the soil; that is, they were not allowed to leave the estate on which they were born. When an estate changed owners, the serfs went with the estate.

The freemen were peasant vassals but were not bound to one spot. Many of them had been owners of little farms but were forced to give them up through the greed of stronger men, or, as frequently happened, they voluntarily gave up their lands and received them back as fiefs in order to secure protection from barbarians and robbers. An estate was called a manor or vill, and from the latter word the tenants were called villains. From it also we get the word village and also the final syllable of the names of many of our towns, as Louisville, Zanesville.

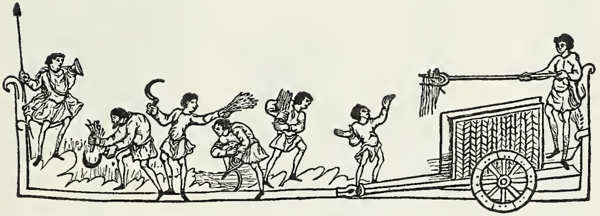
The suzerain was often a tyrant, and the lot of the peasants was a hard one. They lived in ignorance and squalor in miserable one-room huts without windows or chimneys. Life was a dreary,



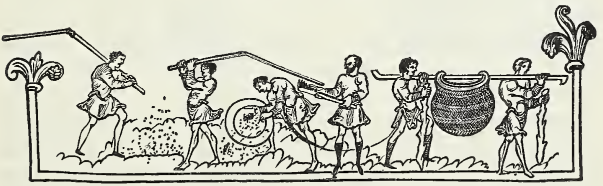
January, Plowing



March, Breaking up the Soil, Sowing, Harrowing



August, Harvesting



December, Threshing (with flails) and Winnowing

English Farm Life

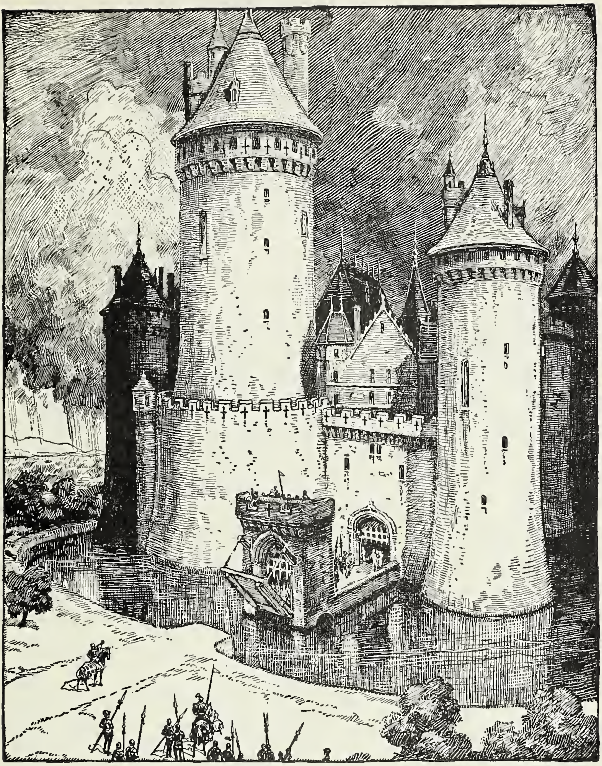
From an illuminated calendar of the eleventh century in the British Museum.

monotonous grind generation after generation. Whatever they earned above the necessities of life was required by the landlord. But as human nature always finds a way of being happy, we can imagine that with their brown bread and beer, with their holidays and their neighborhood life, there was many a bright spot on the dark canvas.

The suzerain required a portion of everything the peasant produced on the little farm allotted to him — grain, hay, fruits, stock, chickens, and eggs. He also collected a fee for pasturing stock in the forest, or for fishing in the streams. The peasant could not be deprived of his bit of soil, usually about 30 acres; but he was obliged to grind his wheat at his lord's mill, to bake his bread at his lord's oven, and to press his grapes at his lord's winepress, and for all these a heavy toll was charged. In addition to all this the villain had to work two or three days a week for his lord, tilling his fields, caring for his crops, and keeping his castle and other buildings in repair. In rare cases the peasant had to work for his master six days in the week, cultivating his own little patch by moonlight and on Sunday. Many of the peasants ran away, and if a fugitive could keep from being captured for a year and a day he remained free.

215. The Medieval Castle. — A present-day traveler in Europe is impressed by the ruins of many a great stone castle crowning a hilltop or perched on some rocky cliff, approachable from one side only. On closer examination he will find some of the castles in a good state of preservation, others in moldering ruins. They are the remains of manorial castles of the feudal lords. They are voices of the past, and all date from the Middle Ages. Many hundreds of them are scattered over England and the Continent.

The walls of these castles are often found to be ten or fifteen feet thick, with turrets and battlements and lofty towers pierced by small windows. Around the castle where the ground would admit there was a deep ditch or moat. This was filled with water and was spanned by a bridge that could be removed by pulleys in time of attack.



A MEDIEVAL CASTLE (RESTORED)

The largest round tower, called the donjon, was often 200 feet high and 100 feet in diameter, with walls in some places 30 feet thick. Smaller towers, a moat, and high walls also protected the great fortress. The entrance to the castle was over a drawbridge crossing the moat. In time of attack the drawbridge was raised and the portcullis, a heavy grating of wood, was lowered across the gateway. The walls were defended by bowmen who rained down arrows on the enemy or dropped stones or melted lead from the battlements. The lord of the castle lived with his family in a series of rooms, including the great hall, that faced the inner courtyard.

It is plain to be seen that these castles were fortresses as well as homes of the manorial lords, and their existence in such numbers indicates that they were the product of an age of private and local warfare.

In the earlier centuries wooden towers were erected for defense, all of which have disappeared. In the eleventh century these began to be replaced by stone castles; but after the invention of gunpowder and the manufacture of cannon (fourteenth century) even the stone castle was no longer built, as no walls could be made so strong that they could not be battered down with cannon balls.

216. Fighting in Armor. — The king made no pretense of preventing his vassals, the great baronial lords, from fighting one another. Their chief business was fighting. They fought not only for gain and for self-protection, but also because they loved to fight. Work was considered ignoble. The feudal peasants had to do the work. The noble was a warrior, and nothing but a warrior. The champing of the war horse, the rattling of the saber, were music in the ears of the knight of the Middle Ages. If a knight, as the fighting lord was usually called, sent his glove or some hair from his fur mantle to his adversary, it was a challenge to battle. Without books or newspapers, and with no work to do, life was monotonous in the feudal castle. War was a diversion and a pastime.

Frequently these petty wars were not very bloody. A knight was usually not desirous of killing his adversary; he preferred to take him prisoner, whereupon he would demand a heavy ransom for his release. When a lord was taken prisoner his vassals would scurry the country round to raise the means for securing his ransom.

A knight in battle wore complete armor. His coat of mail was made of iron rings. It was called a hauberk. The head was protected by a helmet of steel. His weapons were a short steel sword and a long lance usually made of ashwood. With this equipment he fought on horseback. One had to practice for years to become skilled in this sort of fighting, but when thoroughly trained one could fight without great danger of being killed. Many of the knights were ignorant, unable to read. Some were lawless freebooters, who made raids about the country, destroying property and stealing what they could. These were mere highway robbers and were known as the Robber Knights. Ordinarily, however, knighthood carried with it a certain sense of honor and fair dealing.

II. CHIVALRY

217. Knighthood and Chivalry. — Knighthood, the rank and profession of knights, embraced the military ideals of feudalism. Chivalry [1] was the heroic and romantic features of knighthood. A Christian warrior was called a knight, and his aim was to be chivalrous, that is, to cultivate honor, courtesy to women, dexterity at arms, and undaunted courage in battle. As a military order chivalry undertook to protect the church and defend the weak.

The knight was a trained cavalryman. He loved all that was romantic or heroic; he was full of reckless daring in battle, but generous to an enemy.

To become a knight a long course of training was required. At the age of seven years the boy was sent to the castle of some noble. Part of his time he spent with the lord of the castle as cupbearer and the like, and part with the ladies of the estate, where he learned the etiquette of the court. After seven years of such service the lad became a squire, which means attendant. During the next seven years he served his master in the chase, in the tournament, and in battle. He held the knight's horse and replaced his broken lance with a new one. When not attending his master the youthful squire waited on the ladies of the castle, walked with them in the parks, or rode by their side in the chase.

During all this time the youth was looking forward longingly to the time when the reward for his long service would be his, when he would be crowned with knighthood. The ceremony leading to knighthood was very impressive. The knight-to-be, after a long fast, knelt humbly and made a solemn vow to be true to his religion and faithful to the ladies. His lord then struck him gently on the shoulder with his sword, a ceremony known as the accolade, and pronounced him a knight. Having received his sword and armor, he proudly mounted his prancing steed in its glittering trappings, and thus began his life on horseback — the life of a knight.

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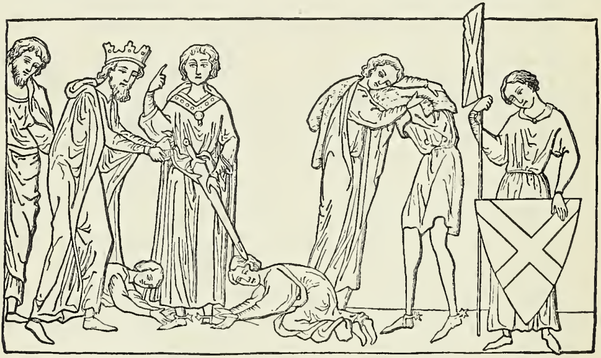
[1] The word chivalry is from a word that means horse, from which we also get our word cavalry

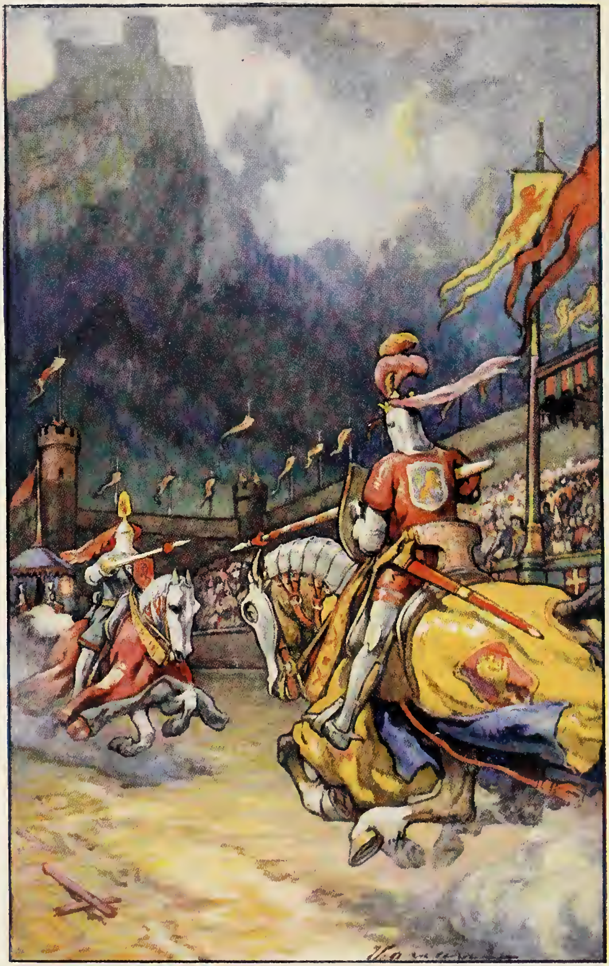


Ceremony of Knighthood

From an illuminated manuscript at Oxford University. After the accolade, the newly made knight was armed with sword, spurs, shield, and lance. The picture shows also how a coat of mail was drawn over the knight's head.

218. The Tournament. — The tournament was a sham battle on horseback. It was a rough play in which only knights engaged, and its purpose was to exhibit their courage and their skill in horsemanship and arms. Great crowds gathered to witness the exhibition. A beautiful woman of noble family was chosen queen of the tournament and she occupied the most prominent seat among the spectators.

In a spacious arena, in full armor and armed with lances, the



A TOURNAMENT

knights would ride toward each other at full speed and as they met each tried to strike the other from his horse. If neither succeeded they tried again and again. If both were unhorsed they often continued the combat on foot until one had overcome his antagonist. The victor would then receive a garland of flowers from his lady as his reward of victory.

For three or four centuries the tournament was the popular game, though it often resulted in the death of one or more combatants. At one tournament in 1240 sixty knights lost their lives. A tournament in Paris in 1559 brought death to Henry II, king of France. Chiefly on account of this tragedy the tournament fell into disfavor and was at length abandoned.

219. The Good and the Bad in Feudalism and Chivalry. — Two serious faults must be found with the feudal knight. First, he fostered the caste system, and never learned to recognize the rights of his inferiors. Second, he made warfare the chief if not the sole business of his life.

But the merits of the feudal system will perhaps outweigh its defects. The peasants, in that age of disorder, were doubtless better off under the protection of a feudal master than in the earlier centuries when lawless, wandering tribes devastated the land. Moreover, the feudal peasants learned to toil and to become self-reliant and strong. Their moral and religious standard was high. They became a stout yeomanry and they laid the foundation of a future civilization.

Chivalry made men more honorable, religious, and truthful, and it placed woman in a position of honor unknown before in the world's history. The mistress of the feudal castle and her daughters were held in the highest esteem, not for their culture, for they had little, but because of their virtuous lives based on a solid religious foundation.

SIDE TALKS

Books and Writing in the Middle Ages. — One of the causes of the widespread illiteracy of the early Middle Ages was the scarcity of books. The Romans wrote their books on Egyptian papyrus (sec. 26) or on parchment, and in time the rolled book gave place to the book composed of sheets bound together. After the Saracens conquered Egypt in the seventh century, papyrus could no longer be had from that country, and as parchment was expensive, books became very rare and of great value. It was not unusual for a book to be written on parchment from which some former writing had been erased. From this cause it is probable that many important works of the ancients perished. In the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries books were so scarce and so expensive that none but the rich could afford to own them. A French countess paid for a single book 200 sheep, five quarters (quarter tons) of wheat, and the same amount of rye and millet.

In the eleventh century the art of making paper was introduced into Spain by the Moors. From there it spread to Italy and later to France and Germany, and still later to England. Paper was made by hand from rags and plant fiber. After the introduction of paper making the writing of books was greatly stimulated and the educational standard of certain classes steadily rose. Many books made in the Middle Ages are still in existence and some of them are of great value. In 1901 Mr. J. P. Morgan of New York purchased of an English earl the famous Lindau Gospels, ornamented with gold and jewels, for $50,000.

How People Lived in the Middle Ages.[1] — In the center of the town or village stood the church and parsonage, and near them was the manor house with its dovecot and its near-by mill for grinding the corn of the tenants. The manor house in which lived the lord of the manor was built of stone or of timber. The peasant homes were dirty hovels covered with turf, sometimes with thatch. None of them had chimneys. " Moreover, there were no brick houses. It is a curious fact that the art of making bricks seems to have been lost in England for some hundreds of years. The laborer's dwelling had no windows; the hole in the roof which let out the smoke rendered windows unnecessary. . . . The laborer's fire was in the middle of the house; he and his wife and children huddled around it, sometimes groveling in the ashes, and going to bed meant flinging themselves down upon the straw which served them as mattress and feather bed."

Their food was the coarsest. " The poor man's loaf was as black as mud, and as tough as his shoe leather." The poor had plenty of fuel in winter, composed of turf, " but the poor horses and sheep and cattle were half starved for at least four months in the year, and one and all were much smaller than they are now." Salt was secured by evaporating sea water. It was high-priced and the poor had but little of it, and seldom did they taste sugar. They ate cabbage and carrots and beets, but potatoes and tea and coffee and tobacco were unknown. . . . "As for the dress of the working classes, it was hardly dress at all — a kind of tunic leaving the arms and legs bare, with a girdle of rope or leather around the waist. The laws against crime were very severe, there being more than two hundred offenses for which the penalty was death."

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[1] This is a picture of peasant life in England in the reign of Edward I (about 1300) adapted and partly quoted from Jessopp's *The Coming of the Friars and Other Historic Essays.*

Court Fools and Jesters. — A curious custom of the Middle Ages was the keeping of professional fun makers in the palaces of great baronial lords and especially at the courts of kings. These, especially in the earlier period, were of two classes known as the court fools and the jesters. The fool was a half-witted person fantastically dressed. He was kept for the purpose of making merriment for the master and the family and guests, especially at mealtime, as laughter was considered an aid to digestion. The foolish pranks and talk of the fool were deemed amusing and kept the company in a merry mood. The fool had no social standing and often he had to get a living as best he could, sometimes even eating with the dogs. The jester, on the other hand, was a man of ready wit, quick at repartee, apt in telling stories, frolicsome and good-humored and often well educated. Frequently he was the constant companion of the king or the noble who employed him. The custom of employing fools and jesters at king's courts persisted far into modern times and was not abandoned in some countries before the nineteenth century.

Questions and Topics. — How did the great lords of the Middle Ages obtain their lands? What were their powers in relation to their vassals? Describe the home life of the serf. What training was necessary for knighthood? Describe the tournament and state why it came to be abandoned. Does our modern game of football bear any resemblance to the tournament? Which is better in your opinion, for a country to be divided into great estates, or into small tracts farmed by the owners? Why?

For Further Reading. — Emerton, *Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages*. Seignobos, *The Feudal Régime*. Interesting readings from the sources may be found in Ogg, *Source Book of Medieval History*, Robinson, *Readings in European History*, Vol. I, and in the source book by Thatcher and McNeal. See also Thatcher and Schevill, *Europe in the Middle Age*, ch. XI.

CHAPTER XIX

PAPACY AND EMPIRE; THE CRUSADES

I. THE PAPACY AND THE EMPIRE

220. Henry the Fowler and Otto the Great. — For several hundred years after the time of Charlemagne we find few great names in European history. Disorder and confusion reigned on all sides and, as stated in the preceding chapter, the lands were divided into great baronial estates, each under the control of a feudal master.

Henry the Fowler was so called because when informed that he was elected king of Germany he was hunting in the Harz (harts) Mountains with a falcon on his wrist. Henry was a successful ruler. He built many cities; he waged successful wars against the Danes and the Slavs, and it was on the foundations he laid that Otto, his more famous son, began the building of the German nation.

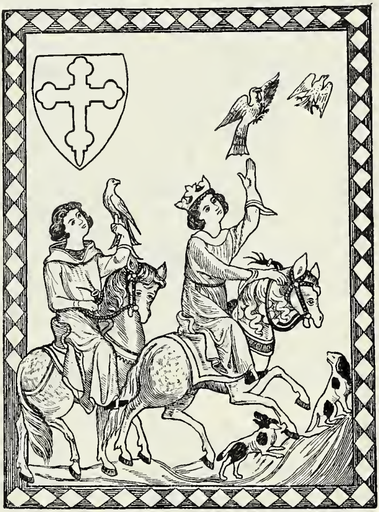
Otto the Great (936–973) was a bold and restless king. Otto brought the great German dukes, holding the vast feudal estates, under his sway and made himself really king.

Next he addressed himself to the Slavs, who had been encroaching on German territory, and to the Hunga′rians, whose incursions were similar to those of the Huns under Attila five hundred years before. Otto succeeded in driving out or Germanizing the Slav invaders, and his success against the Hungarians was still greater.

Henry the Fowler had paid heavy tribute to the Hungarians to keep them from devastating his lands. Otto would do nothing of the kind. He met the invading hordes in battle near Augsburg (955) and defeated them with great slaughter. It was said that

100,000 Hungarians perished in this battle. Soon after this the Hungarian people were converted to Christianity and settled quietly in what is now Hun'gary, where they have remained to this day.

Italy in the meantime was in great disorder, and thither went the German king. The papacy, which had been so strong in the times of Leo the Great (sec. 201) and Gregory the Great (sec. 202), had fallen to a low estate. The popes were chosen by the warring factions of the Roman nobility, and sometimes there were two or three at a time, each claiming to be the true pope.

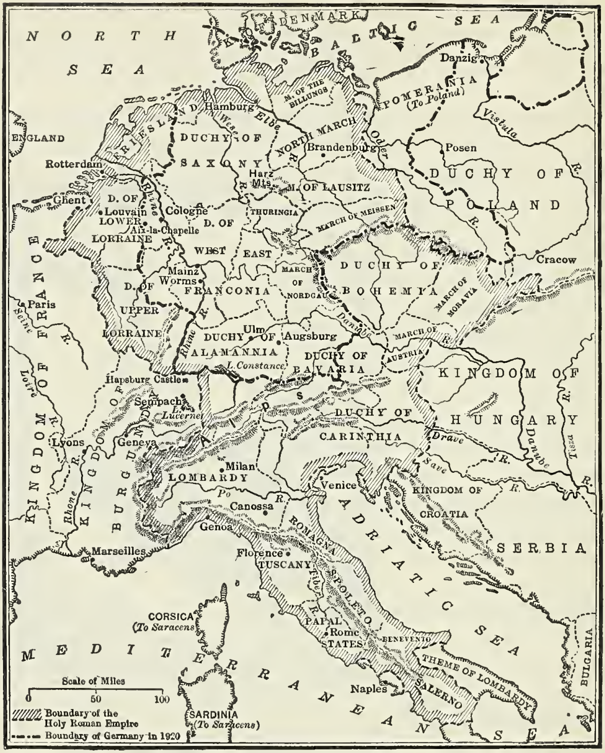


A King Hunting with Falcons

From an illuminated manuscript of the fourteenth century. Falcons, a species of hawk, were trained to take game and were very widely used by sportsmen in the Middle Ages.

King Otto subdued the Roman nobles, annexed Italy to his dominions, and was crowned emperor by the pope in 962. For many years thereafter Germany and Italy constituted the empire. The union distracted the energies of the emperors and left Germany broken into sections; but it benefited the Germans by bringing them into contact with Italian art, learning, and culture.

221. Pope Gregory VII. — For nearly a century after the time of Otto the Great no strong man appeared as head of the empire. Some of the emperors were decidedly corrupt and gave free rein


NORTH SEA
DENMARK
BALTIC SEA
Danzig
POMERANIA (To Poland)
M. OF THE BILLUNGS
Vistula
FRIESLAND
Hamburg
Weser
Elbe
NORTH MARCH
Oder
ENGLAND
DUCHY OF SAXONY
Brandenburg
Posen
Rotterdam
Harz Mts.
M. OF LAUSITZ
DUCHY OF POLAND
Ghent
D. OF LOWER LORRAINE
Louvain
Cologne
Aix-la-Chapelle
THURINGIA
MARCH OF MEISSEN
D. OF WEST EAST FRANCONIA
Rhine R.
Cracow
Mainz
Worms
MARCH OF NORDGAU
DUCHY OF BOHEMIA
MARCH OF MORAVIA
Paris
Seine R.
D. OF UPPER LORRAINE
Ulm
Augsburg
Danube
MARCH OF AUSTRIA
DUCHY OF ALAMANNIA
L. Constance
DUCHY OF BAVARIA
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Loire R.
Hapsburg Castle
Sempach
L. Lucerne
ALPS
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
KINGDOM OF BURGUNDY
DUCHY OF CARINTHIA
Drave
Lyons
Geneva
Save
Tisza
Milan
LOMBARDY
Venice
KINGDOM OF CROATIA
Rhone
Po
Canossa
Genoa
ROMAGNA
ADRIATIC SEA
SERBIA
Marseilles
Florence
TUSCANY
SPOLETO
Tiber R.
CORSICA (To Saracens)
PAPAL STATES
Rome
BENEVENTO
BULGARIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
THEME OF LOMBARDY
SALERNO
Naples
Scale of Miles
0
50
100
Boundary of the Holy Roman Empire
Boundary of Germany in 1920
SARDINIA (To Saracens)

Holy Roman Empire about 1000 A. D.

to the practice of sim′ony.[1] Meantime the papacy had been growing stronger, and the time was at hand when a serious conflict was to break out between the church and the empire. The papacy was greatly strengthened by a reform in the method of choosing the popes. It was now definitely settled that the pope should always be elected (for life, of course) by the cardinals. The cardinals are princes of the church, members of the pope's council, appointed (for life) by the pope.

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[1] Simony means the selling of church offices. The word comes from the name of Simon the sorcerer (Acts VIII, 20), who offered the apostle Peter money for the power to confer the Holy Spirit by the laying on of hands.

Pope Gregory VII was one of the greatest figures of the Middle Ages. His earlier name was Hil'debrand. Born in Italy in 1018, he was educated in Rome. He became the adviser of the popes and for many years was the power behind the papal throne. He was a man of affairs, tactful, diplomatic, of boundless energy, though not personally ambitious; also, he was a man of pure moral life, of sincere motives, of an iron will. He saw the great need of reform in the church.

In 1073 Hildebrand ascended the papal chair and took the name of Gregory VII. One of the first changes he brought about was with reference to the married clergy. An old rule of the church was that priests should not marry, but many of them disregarded it. Thousands of priests were living with their wives. Gregory ordered them to put away their wives and forbade all others to marry. There was wide and vehement protest against this ruling, but in the end the rule became universal in the Roman Catholic Church.

Two other reforms that Pope Gregory determined to bring about were to put a stop to simony and to take from emperor and kings the power of investiture. By investiture is meant the investing or conferring, on bishops and abbots, of their offices and the lands that went with the offices. For a long time the secular rulers had been doing this, but Gregory contended that this power belonged to the head of the church and to him alone.

As to investiture, Gregory warned the kings of France, Germany, and England to abandon the practice, with the threat of excommunication if they did not heed. To excommunicate was to declare one out of communion with the church. It was a punishment much dreaded, and often inflicted in the Middle Ages.

Moreover, Gregory took the high ground that the pope is above all earthly powers, and that all other bishops, all kings, and emperors may be set up or deposed by him.

222. Emperor Henry IV. — The greatest conflict Gregory had was with Henry IV, emperor of Germany. Henry was an able ruler, but his many blunders, his want of high character, and especially his unfortunate quarrel with the pope, left him an unenviable name in history. When Gregory summoned Henry to Rome to answer certain charges, the emperor haughtily refused, and the pope pronounced on him a sentence of excommunication. Henry was still defiant, but as the great majority of his subjects believed the pope to be the true head of the church, they began to desert their king, and he soon found that the only way he could save his crown was to seek pardon of Gregory. Crossing the Alps through the snows of midwinter, the emperor met Gregory at the castle of Canossa in Italy. At length Henry was absolved and received back into the church.

But the troubles were not ended. Henry again became defiant and again the pope excommunicated him. This time the German people, believing the pope too severe, sided with their emperor. Henry took courage, marched into Italy with an army, seized Rome, and drove the pope out of the city. Gregory died in 1085. His last words were, " I have loved justice and hated iniquity, therefore I die an exile."

Henry's turbulent reign continued many years longer. His German vassals, including his own son, revolted against him. He lost his crown and died broken-hearted in 1106.

The controversy about investitures was finally settled by the Concordat of Worms (vōrms) in 1122, when it was agreed that the pope should control the election of bishops and abbots as officers of the church, while the king or emperor retained the power to confer their lands upon them. Practically this meant that either pope or emperor could reject an unfit candidate.

223. Later Relations of Popes and Monarchs. — The series of bitter quarrels between popes and rulers, as noted above, marked the beginning of the complete triumph of the church over the state.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the popes were generally stronger than kings or emperors, and the monarchs of Western Europe were subject to their will. Then came a change. The French, German, and English kings gradually persuaded their people that their authority in secular affairs came directly from God and not through the pope. The people remained true to the church, believing in the spiritual leadership of the pope; but in secular matters they regarded their sovereign as supreme. The sovereigns, therefore, supported by their people, finally made themselves independent of the pope in matters pertaining to their governments.

II. THE CRUSADES

224. **Causes and Meaning of the Crusades.** — The Middle Ages furnish no event or series of events more visionary and impractical, more romantic and picturesque, than the series of enthusiastic religious uprisings in Europe known as the crusades.

The crusades were a succession of wholesale pilgrimages and religious wars for the purpose of recovering Palestine or the Holy Land, and especially the Holy Sepulcher of Christ, from the control of the Mohammedans. Wave after wave of restless humanity swept from Europe into Asia. Men, women, and children, hundreds of thousands of them, went on these pious pilgrimages. As usually stated, there were seven crusades beginning in 1096 and covering at intervals nearly 200 years, but during the intervals there were small bands or individual pilgrims almost every year throughout the entire period.

In the motley crowds that went to the Orient were kings and princes, nobles, knights and vassals, bishops and monks. On horseback and on foot, armed and unarmed, they made their way across rugged mountains and wide rivers and boisterous seas. Badly organized and without strong leadership, they encountered war and pestilence and famine. They perished in unnumbered thousands, and only a small fraction of them ever returned to the homes they had left.

What Mecca was to the Mohammedan, Jerusalem was to the Christian — a holy city to which pilgrimages were wont to be made. But for more than four centuries the followers of Mohammed had held control of Jerusalem, and Christian pilgrims were often maltreated by the insolent Moslem. During all these four hundred years pious Christians of Europe braved the perils of Moslem hostility in order to visit the Holy Land. The pilgrimage to Palestine was one of the most popular forms of penance, and many a devout Christian would have given his life for the privilege of beholding the land where the Saviour's feet had trod and especially the tomb in which He had lain.

Many were the tales of Mohammedan outrages brought back by the returning pilgrims. Christian Europe was roused at length to religious frenzy. Hence came the crusades,[1] so called because each pilgrim wore a large red cross on his breast.

225. **The First Crusade.** — In the autumn of 1095 a great religious gathering was held at Clermont, France. The most notable personage present was Pope Urban II, who preached a sermon to the assembled multitude that set Europe on fire. He pictured the wretched condition of the churches in Asia Minor and Palestine on account of the aggression of the Mohammedans. He called on Christian Europe to cease private warfare, to join an expedition to the East and deliver the holy places from the hands of the infidel. While he was yet speaking the answer arose from thousands of lips, "It is the will of God. It is the will of God."

The pope commanded the clergy to preach a holy war and promised large spiritual rewards to all who would join in the expedition against the Orient. Among those who obeyed was Peter the Hermit, who roused the people with his burning eloquence. In the spring of 1096 a great army of crusaders moved up the Rhine from Cologne, crossed the mountains, passed through the valley of the Danube, and reached Constantinople in midsummer. Across northern Italy and around the Adriatic came other bands in countless numbers. For several years the streams kept flowing

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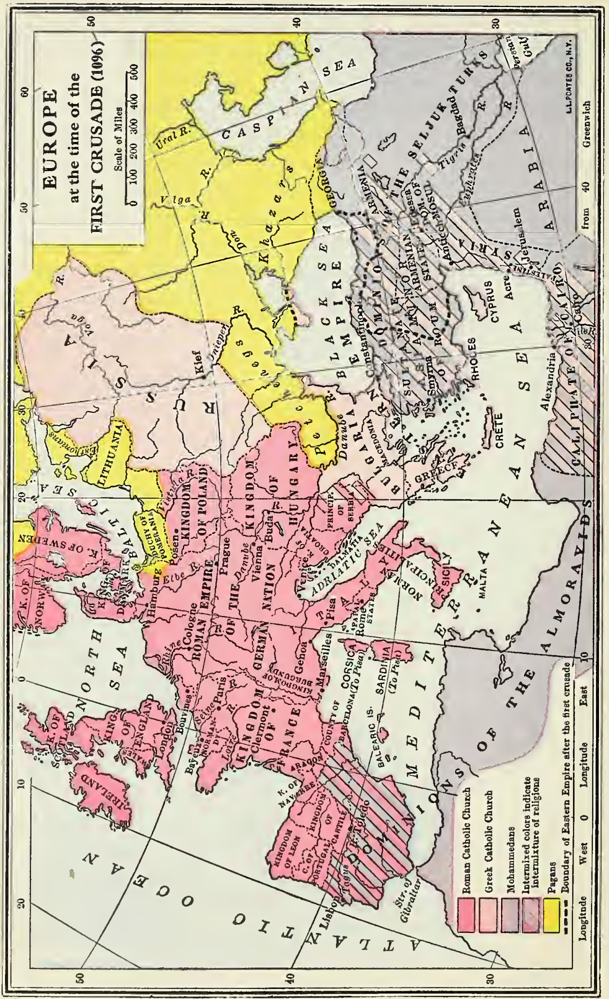
[1] From Latin *crux*, a cross.

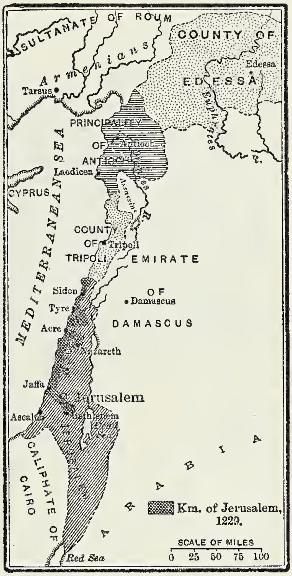

EUROPE
at the time of the
FIRST CRUSADE (1096)
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Roman Catholic Church
Greek Catholic Church
Mohammedans
Intermixed colors indicate intermixture of religions
Pagans
Boundary of Eastern Empire after the first crusade
Longitude West 0 Longitude East from Greenwich
L.L.POATES CO., N.Y.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
CASPIAN SEA
BLACK SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
IRELAND
K. OF SCOTLAND
KINGDOM OF ENGLAND
WALES
London
K. OF NORWAY
K. OF SWEDEN
KING. OF DENMARK
DUCHY OF POMERANIA
KINGDOM OF POLAND
LITHUANIA
Esthonians
RUSSIA
Kief
Khazars
Petchenegs
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
NORMANDY
Paris
Clermont
Bouvines
Bayeux
KINGDOM OF BURGUNDY
Marseilles
ROMAN EMPIRE OF THE GERMAN NATION
Cologne
Hamburg
Posen
Prague
Vienna
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
Buda
CROATIA
DALMATIA
PRINCIP. OF SERBIA
BULGARIA
MACEDONIA
GREECE
BYZANTINE EMPIRE
Constantinople
Venice
Genoa
Pisa
Rome
PAPAL STATES
ITALY
NORMAN PRINCIPALITIES
SICILY
MALTA
CORSICA (To Pisa)
SARDINIA (To Pisa)
BALEARIC IS.
COUNTY OF BARCELONA
ARAGON
K. OF NAVARRE
KINGDOM OF CASTILE
KINGDOM OF LEON
C. OF PORTUGAL
Toledo
Lisbon
Str. of Gibraltar
DOMINIONS OF THE ALMORAVIDS
CALIPHATE OF CAIRO
Alexandria
Cairo
CRETE
RHODES
CYPRUS
Acre
Jerusalem
PALESTINE
SYRIA
Antioch
Smyrna
SULTANATE OF ROUM
ASIA MINOR
ARMENIAN STATE
Edessa
DOM. OF MOSUL
ARMENIA
GEORGIA
THE SELJUK TURKS
Bagdad
ARABIA
Persian Gulf
Tigris R.
Euphrates R.
Danube
Rhine
Elbe R.
Vistula R.
Dnieper R.
Don R.
Volga R.
Ural R.
Seine R.
Loire R.
Tagus R.
Nile R.
50
40
30
20
10
0
60

Facing 257

and some have estimated the numbers of the first crusade at more than half a million.

A great many of the crusaders were truly religious people with pure motives; but others were vagabonds fleeing from debt or from their families, and still others were roving spirits seeking adventure, or vassals fleeing from their feudal masters. They were very disorderly; they robbed and pillaged along the way.

From Constantinople they crossed into Asia Minor and Syria, and the Turkish armies met them on the way. The crusaders fought valiantly, but they were without good leadership, and the bones of tens of thousands of them were left to whiten the Syrian plains. The survivors kept on; they captured Edes'sa, Antioch (an'tĭ-ŏk), and many smaller places. They entered Palestine, and in June, 1099, came within sight of the walls of the Holy City. Bursting into tears of joy, they removed their shoes, uncovered their heads, and as they marched, sang the words of the prophet, "Jerusalem, lift up thine eyes, and behold the liberator who comes to break thy chains."


SULTANATE OF ROUM
COUNTY OF EDESSA
Edessa
Armenians
Tarsus
Euphrates
PRINCIPALITY OF ANTIOCH
Antioch
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Laodicea
CYPRUS
Orontes R.
Assassins
COUNTY OF TRIPOLI
Tripoli
EMIRATE OF DAMASCUS
Damascus
Sidon
Tyre
Acre
Nazareth
Jaffa
Jerusalem
Ascalon
Bethlehem
Dead Sea
Jordan R.
CALIPHATE OF CAIRO
ARABIA
Km. of Jerusalem, 1229.
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 75 100
Red Sea

Crusaders' States in Syria after the First Crusade

The city was captured by storm, and the crusaders ruthlessly massacred thousands of the inhabitants. A Christian government was established. Godfrey, one of the crusaders, was made ruler; but he refused the title of king, declaring that he would not wear a crown of gold where his Master had worn a crown of thorns. In the fall of 1099 part of the surviving crusaders returned to Europe; but others went out to Syria from year to year, and kept up the warfare on the Moslems.

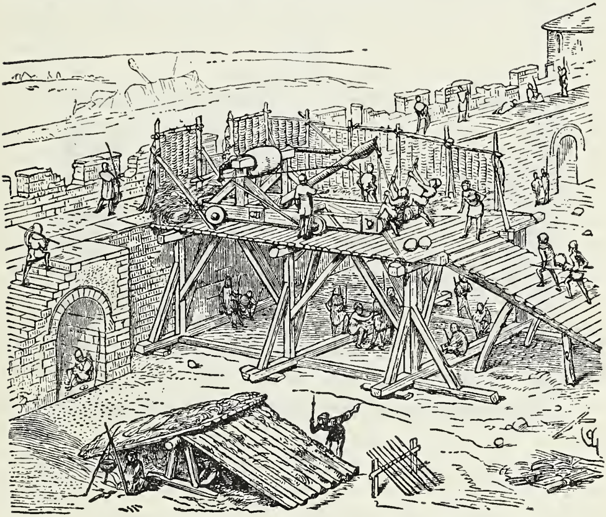
226. Later Crusades. — The second crusade (1147–1149) was preached by Saint Bernard and was led by the emperor of Germany and the king of France. It was more unfortunate than the first. The lives of 200,000 men were frittered away in this ill-managed undertaking.

The third crusade was led by three kings — Frederick Barbarossa of Germany, Philip Augustus of France, and Richard, king of England, known in history as the Lion-hearted. This crusade was inspired by the news of the capture of Jerusalem (1187) by a Moslem army led by Sal'adin, a great Mohammedan ruler of Egypt. First sorrow and then anger spread over the face of Europe when the facts became known. But when the three greatest sovereigns in Europe took a vow to join a crusade to recover the Holy City, the people applauded and rejoiced.

The first to enter upon the perilous journey was Frederick. With a host of zealous followers he crossed the mountains and entered Asia Minor; but he was drowned in a swollen stream and his followers dispersed and accomplished nothing.

Richard was a typical knight of the Middle Ages, an Apollo in appearance, dauntless in battle, and never so happy as when wielding his ponderous battle-ax in front of his columns. Here was his opportunity to gratify his insatiable desire to fight, under the guise of religion. In order to raise money to equip his army for the East, Richard almost looted his kingdom. He sold offices, he sold titles of honor and of nobility, he sold castles and royal lands and whole towns. Sending his fleet by way of Gibraltar, he crossed Europe on horseback (1190). The next spring we find him under the walls of Acre (ä'ker), a city on the coast of Palestine. For twenty-three months the siege continued, while far away on the hills gleamed the myriad spears of the army of Saladin; but Saladin could not rescue the city, and it fell into the hands of the crusaders.

Philip of France had gone back to his own country, and Richard was unable to capture Jerusalem. The best he could do was to make terms with Saladin by which the crusading pilgrims were permitted to visit the Holy Sepulcher. Having made this arrangement, Richard set out for England.[1]



Artillery of the Middle Ages — a Catapult

Most catapults were great crossbows. The one shown here, however, called also an on'ager, was like a great sling. Catapults were used for either offensive or defensive warfare. The one shown is being employed in the defense of city walls. Stones were used as ammunition.

The results of the third crusade, with all its expenditure of treasure and human life, were almost nothing.

The fourth crusade, a few years later, was turned into an invasion of the Eastern Empire, and resulted in the capture of Constantinople, which was held by the Westerners for more than half a century.

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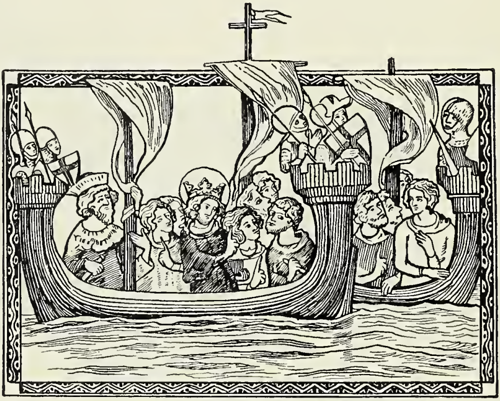
[1] See Side Talk, page 278.

The later crusades showed that the zeal and enthusiasm of earlier years were waning. Though equally marked by wholesale sacrifice of human life, they were barren of results, and with the exception of a very few years Jerusalem was not again recovered from the Moslems. In the last of the seven crusades, 1270, France lost one of the noblest of her kings, Louis IX, known as Saint Louis.



Louis IX Starting for the Crusades

From an illuminated manuscript of the thirteenth century.

227. The Children's Crusade (1212). — The saddest chapter in the story of the crusades is the account of the children's crusade. In some way the notion spread over France and Germany that the earlier crusades had failed because of the sinfulness of those engaged in them, and that a crusade of innocent children would be crowned with success by the favor and blessing of God.

A boy named Stephen, a French shepherd lad of twelve years, began to preach a crusade of the children to the Holy Land. A boy named Nicholas became the leader in Germany. These and many other boys went from place to place urging the children to engage in this gigantic undertaking — to travel many hundred miles by sea and land and to cope with a foe that the greatest armies in Europe had failed to overcome!

From towns and villages and countryside the little ones gathered and started on their long journey, from which few were ever to return. Fifty thousand was the estimated number; the majority were boys, but many were girls and nearly all were under twelve years of age. The German children crossed the Alps into northern Italy. The French children made their way to the Mediterranean through southern France. Great numbers of them died along the way from hunger and exposure. Some of them went to Rome, where the pope, Innocent III, received them kindly; but he ordered them to return to their homes and some of them did so. The majority of them continued their journey and when they reached the sea they expected in their innocence that God would open up a way for them that they might cross to Palestine on dry land. But the waves rolled on. At length several thousand of them embarked in some trading vessels, but the vessels proved to be slave ships and the little crusaders were carried to the Mohammedan slave markets and sold into lifelong bondage. None of the children ever reached Palestine; a few returned to their homes, but the great majority perished or were sold into slavery.

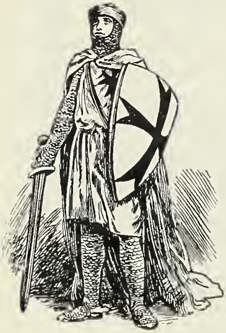
228. The Result of the Crusades. — It is estimated that five million people lost their lives in the crusades. Never had there been a more disastrous series of wars. Europe had no need to conquer Asia. The conquered places soon fell back into the hands of the Turks, and so remained until taken by a British army in 1917–1918.

The crusades brought little honor to the name of Christ. Many of the crusaders were sincerely religious, but a great number of them were mere adventurers; they wasted their energy fighting one another and attacking unimportant places.

But after all, we can see, from the perspective of seven hundred years, how from these medieval wars came good never intended or dreamed of by the crusaders themselves.

First, the crusaders beat back the encroaching Turks, weakened their armies, and caused the capture of Constantinople to be deferred for several hundred years — until the European nations were so strengthened that a universal Mohammedan conquest of Europe had become impossible.

The great positive results of the crusades, moreover, arose from the fact that Europe came into contact with the higher and finer civilization of the Arabians. Europe, emerging from the Dark Ages, knew little of the ancient civilization of Babylon and Egypt, much of which had been inherited by the Arabian Saracens, who must not be identified with the barbarous Turks.



A KNIGHT TEMPLAR[1]

By means of the crusades the Europeans came into contact with the more refined Orient and were vastly improved by the experience. Through the crusades the Arabian horse, the donkey, and the mule were introduced into Europe, also many articles of commerce, such as rice and cotton, the fig, the citron, the watermelon, and the pomegranate, and various kinds of medicine. Commerce and literature were stimulated, and travel between the East and the West was facilitated. The Renaissance (rĕn-ĕ-säɴs′) in Europe, which followed later, was in a large measure an outgrowth of the awakening brought by the crusades.

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[1] The order of Knights Templar was created to care for needy crusaders and to protect the holy places of Palestine from Saracens and robbers. They were called Templars because their headquarters were the ancient site of Solomon's temple. Their uniform was a white or black mantle marked with a Maltese cross. The Knights Hos′pitalers, or Knights of St. John, with like purposes, began in Jerusalem, but later took possession of Rhodes and other islands, and finally held the island of Malta until 1798. The order of Teutonic Knights, founded last of the three, traced its beginnings to the third crusade. The Teutonic order began as a charitable society but developed into a military club. In later centuries the Teutonic Knights conquered East Prussia and other provinces from the Slavs.

Finally, the crusades weakened the power of the feudal barons, fostered the growth of towns, and aided in bringing about a great middle class of society. Many of the feudal lords raised sums of money for their journey by granting a large measure of liberty to the towns and villages over which they had ruled with an iron hand. Many of these knights and barons never returned; others who returned were now poor and without the power to reënslave their former servants. From this time forth great numbers of towns and villages and farmers were free from the grinding heel of a feudal master. Feudalism was not destroyed but it was weakened by the crusades, and from this time the common people felt more and more their own importance, knew better their own rights. Thus were laid the foundations of the great middle class that constitutes the bone and sinew of the nation in every modern European state.

Questions and Topics. — I. What was the underlying cause of the contention between the emperors and the popes? What was the chief life work of Otto the Great? What caused the trouble between Henry IV and Pope Gregory VII? What is meant by investiture? What was the final outcome of the quarrel between the popes and the monarchs? Would you pronounce Henry IV a great ruler?

II. What were the crusades and why so called? When and how did the Mohammedans get control of Jerusalem? (Sec. 204.) Describe the first crusade; the children's crusade. In what way did the crusades save Constantinople? Why was Arabian civilization superior to European at this time? In what way did the crusades weaken feudalism? Was the weakening of the feudal barons a good thing for the future civilization of Europe? Why?

Events and Dates. — Otto the Great, 936–973; Pope Gregory VII, 1073–1085. First Crusade, 1096–1099.

For Further Reading. — Stephens, *Hildebrand and his Times*. Bryce, *Holy Roman Empire*. Ogg, *Source Book of Medieval History*. Robinson, *Readings in European History*, I, Ch. XIII. Thatcher and Schevill, *Europe in the Middle Ages*, Chs. XII and XIII. Cox, *The Crusaders*. Gray, *The Children's Crusade*.

THE NATIONS OF THE MIDDLE AGES

CHAPTER XX

ENGLAND IN THE MIDDLE AGES

I. Alfred the Great (871–901)

For various reasons the history of England is more important to us Americans than that of any other foreign country. Both nations speak the same language and have the same literature. Our country and nearly all other civilized countries have appropriated a few great principles of government that were first worked out by the English, such as the jury system, the two-chambered Parliament, and the judicial process by which one cannot be kept in prison or under restraint without warrant of law.[1]

229. England before Alfred. — After the Roman armies were withdrawn from Britain, as we have seen, three Teutonic tribes — the Angles, the Jutes, and many Saxons — came across the North Sea and conquered the country, which was renamed England (sec. 196).

The newcomers did not agree among themselves, and the country was soon divided up into small kingdoms, including Wessex, Kent, and Northum'bria, each having its own king. About the year 827 one of these kings, Egbert of Wessex, conquered all the rest and formed one kingdom, the kingdom of England.

At this time and for many years thereafter the English were greatly annoyed by the Northmen, whom they called Danes. At first the Danes ravaged only the coast towns, but later they penetrated into the interior and took possession of large parts of the country.

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[1] This is known as habeas corpus

230. Alfred and the Danes. — Alfred was probably the ablest king that ever sat on the English throne, and he is the only one to be surnamed "the Great."

In the year 871 the English defeated the Danes in the battle of Ashdown. Alfred's elder brother, the king, was mortally wounded; at least it is so supposed, for he died soon afterward and Alfred became king. For many years thereafter Alfred was obliged to fight the Danes in order to save his kingdom. He met them in battle nine times in one year. Usually he won, for he was a great commander. But sometimes he was obliged to buy off his enemy, and for this purpose the people paid a regular tax called Danegeld. At length a treaty was made with the Danes by which they were to remain in the northern part of England and Alfred was to be left unmolested in Wessex and Kent. This treaty was unbroken for many years.

231. Alfred in Peace. — Alfred the Great was a master in war, but he was still greater in peace. Amid all the distractions of war and of governing a half-civilized people, and though racked with disease and pain, this noble ruler found time to foster education, religion, and literature, and to be a student and an author. He complained that few persons in his kingdom could read Latin. He studied the language himself when nearly forty years old, and for the benefit of his people he translated several important books from Latin into Anglo-Saxon. He founded schools and built churches; he rebuilt London, which had been destroyed in the wars; he devised new plans for houses and ships; he taught craftsmen how to excel in their craft. He carried a psalm book wherever he went, and he knelt humbly among his people in the churches.

A noted historian[1] pronounces Alfred the Great the noblest character in history. He says: "No other man on record has ever so thoroughly united all the virtues both of ruler and of private man. . . . A saint without superstition, a scholar without ostentation, a warrior all of whose wars were fought in defense of his own country, — there is no other name in history to compare with his."

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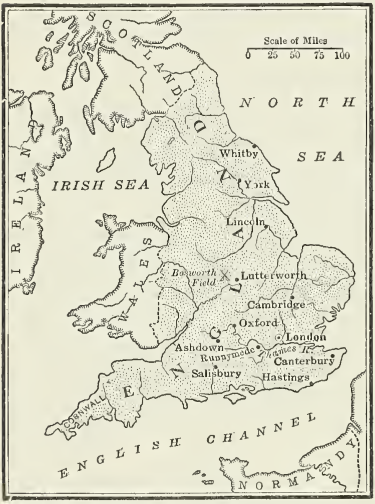
[1] Freeman.

For a hundred and fifty years after Alfred's reign there is little to interest us in English history. There were further wars with the Danes and for a time England was ruled by a great Danish king, Canute (ka-nūt′). But most of the people in England were Anglo-Saxons, and not long after Canute's death the throne was given to a descendant of King Alfred, named Edward the Confessor.


SCOTLAND
Scale of Miles
0 25 50 75 100
NORTH SEA
IRISH SEA
IRELAND
Whitby
York
Lincoln
WALES
Bosworth Field
Lutterworth
Cambridge
Oxford
London
Ashdown
Runnymede
Thames R.
Canterbury
Salisbury
Hastings
ENGLAND
CORNWALL
ENGLISH CHANNEL
NORMANDY

England after the Norman Conquest

II. The Norman Conquest, 1066

232. William of Normandy. — In the year 1034 Robert, duke of Nor′mandy, started on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. Before departing he called together his nobles and, presenting his little son William, a lad of seven years, said, "This boy will be your master in case I never return." And Robert never returned. He died the next year in Asia Minor.

The Normans were the descendants of Northmen who had forced the king of France to give them land in northern France, on which they settled, and which came to be called Normandy. They had adopted the French language and French ways of life. William, the new duke of Normandy, was the son of a peasant woman named Her′leva. He grew to be a powerful ruler, the ablest warrior and statesman of his time, the strongest of a strong race.

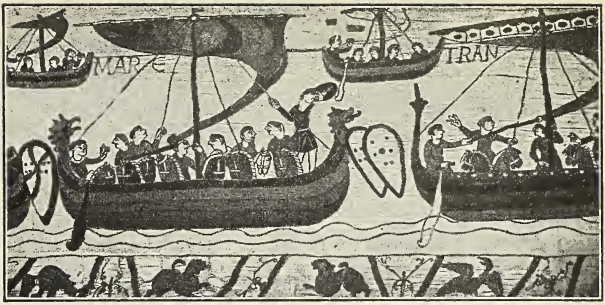
William was very ambitious. His soul burned with a longing to extend his power beyond the narrow bounds of little Normandy, and he cast his eyes across the Channel to the fair land of England with its flourishing fields and its industrious peasantry. The king of England, Edward the Confessor, was William's distant relative, and was childless.

But there was a young man in England, named Harold, the son of a great Saxon nobleman, who was also looking forward to the prize of the English crown. He was not the heir to the crown, but neither was William, and he as well as William was related to the king. Harold seemed to have the advantage, for he lived among the English and was one of them. He was affable and brave, generous and popular, and when the aged Edward died, early in 1066, Harold was promptly made king of England.

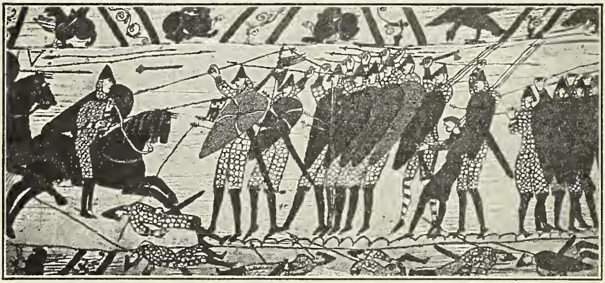
233. The Battle of Hastings (1066). — Harold knew of William's designs on the English throne, but soon after the old king's death he had to lead an army in the far north to defeat another rival. He succeeded in this task, but while he was celebrating his victory at a feast the startling news reached him that William of Normandy had actually landed with a great army on the southern coast near Hastings (hās′tingz). King Harold hastened southward to meet the foe, gathering a large army as he went.

William, on hearing of the death of King Edward, had mustered 60,000 men and conveyed them across the Channel in nearly a thousand boats and ships. The two armies met at Senlac Hill near the town of Hastings, October 14, 1066. For six hours the battle raged, until an arrow struck Harold in the eye and penetrated his brain. With his death the English army was thoroughly disheartened and its defeat soon followed. Thus ended one of the decisive battles of history.

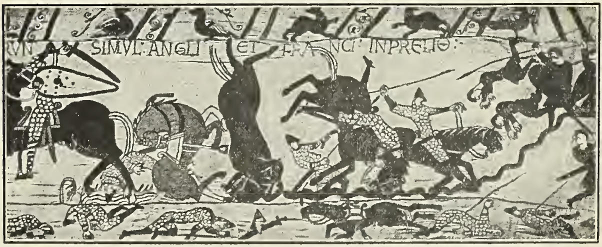
234. Results of the Norman Conquest. — On Christmas Day of the same year that witnessed the bloody victory at Hastings, William was crowned king of England at London. But his



The Fleet Sails for England



The Battle Begins


SIMVL: ANGLI ET FRANCI INPRELIO:

The Action Continues Furiously

THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS—FROM THE BAYEUX TAPESTRY troubles were not over. He was five years putting down various insurrections throughout the country. He then found himself absolute master of the kingdom.

William the Conquerer, as he was called, proved himself a great ruler, but he robbed the English of the liberties they had enjoyed in Anglo-Saxon days. He put Normans in all the important offices, and reduced the English almost to a condition of servitude. It required hundreds of years for the two races to blend into one people.

When we read of the famous battle of Hastings,[1] our sympathies are almost sure to be with King Harold and his people; but viewed in the light of history, the Norman Conquest must be regarded as one of the chief factors in making England a great nation and the English a great people. The barons of England had been growing more and more insolent; they needed a strong ruler and they found one in William. England soon obtained a standing among the nations that it never had before.

Moreover, the spray of Norman blood infused into Anglo-Saxon veins, and the blending of the Norman-French with the Anglo-Saxon language, produced a stronger race and a richer language than otherwise would have been. The French historian Guizot (gē-zō̇′) is probably right in saying that the Anglo-Saxon system if left to itself would have fallen into confusion, and that the true foundations of English liberty are inseparable from the Norman Conquest.

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[1] The famous Bayeux (bȧ-yû′) tapestry consists of a strip of linen cloth, now brown with age, 230 feet long and 20 inches wide, embroidered, in colored woolen thread, with scenes of the conquest of England by William. About one twentieth of it is shown in the pictures on the opposite page. In the whole tapestry are the figures of 625 men, 200 horses, and 40 ships. Most of the scenes are explained by Latin inscriptions which are also stitched in wool. The main subjects occupy the center of the tapestry, and above and below run ornamental borders. The English are depicted with moustaches, the Normans without.

Popular opinion ascribes the tapestry to Matilda, wife of the Conqueror, and tradition has it that it was her death alone that brought the work to an end without including the final scene, William's coronation. The tapestry was undoubtedly made in William's reign.

III. The Plantagenet Kings and the Great Charter

235. Henry II (1154–1189) **and his Sons.** — William the Conqueror, after a reign of twenty-one years, was killed by the stumbling of his horse, and after him there was no strong ruler before the time of Henry II. Henry II was a descendant of Alfred the Great, as well as of William the Conquerer.

The Plantagenet (plăn-tăj′e-nĕt) kings of England, so called because they wore the planta genesta (broom plant) as their badge, were a long dynasty beginning with Henry II, the son of William's granddaughter. Only a few kings of this dynasty can be noticed here.

Henry II had extensive lands in France, part of which he inherited from the Norman kings and from his father, and part of which came through his marriage with a French princess. His four sons — Henry, Richard, Geoffrey (jĕf′rĭ), and John — conspired with the French king and fought against their father over the French lands. At times they were reconciled, and again war would break out. Two of them, Henry and Geoffrey, died before their father.

Henry II was one of the great rulers of medieval England. He reformed and greatly improved the law courts; he sent judges about the country to hold court once a year; he fostered the jury system; he subdued the turbulent nobles and restored the country to order. The king was a man of untiring energy. He seldom sat down and he kept his servants going until they were tired out. Though railroads were then unknown, it was said that he traveled about over his dominions so much that no official in any town could be sure the king would not see him at some time during the day. He was the first English king to extend his power over Ireland. Henry died broken-hearted because of the rebellion of his sons, but the English people remembered him as one of the greatest of their sovereigns.

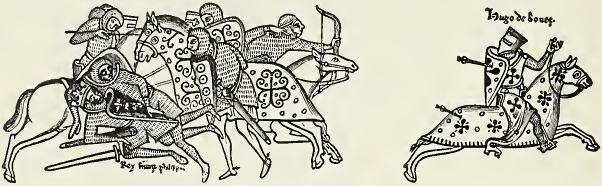
236. Richard and John. — Richard Cœur de Lion (kûr dẽ lē-ôɴ′; that is, the Lion-hearted) succeeded his father on the English throne in 1189 and reigned ten years. We have noticed how he overtaxed his people to raise money for the third crusade (sec. 226). Richard was a chivalric knight and dauntless warrior, but not a good king. He cared little for England and spent but little time in that country; his heart was rather with his extensive possessions in France. Richard was slain while besieging a castle in France, and his weak and cowardly brother John ascended the English throne.

In all the long line of English kings, John is held in least regard. There was no redeeming feature in his character. He was low and brutal in his instincts. He reigned seventeen years (1199-1216), and they were years of continuous tempest and turmoil.

The crime of murder was laid at the door of King John. The true heir to the throne was Prince Arthur, son of the king's dead brother Geoffrey. John had the boy cast into prison and sent men to put out his eyes. Moved by the piteous pleading of the lad, they refused to obey. But soon afterward Arthur was killed, and it was believed that John had slain his little nephew with his own hands.

With Pope Innocent III, one of the greatest of all the popes, John had a bitter quarrel. It arose through a disagreement as to who should be appointed archbishop of Can′terbury. In order to punish the king, Innocent placed the country under an interdict; that is, he ordered the clergy to close all churches and suspend church services. For several years the church bells held their tongues in silence over all the land of England. The king was still obdurate, though the people were against him. The pope at last brought John to his knees by threatening to take the crown from him and bestow it on the king of France. John was completely humiliated. He handed his kingdom over to the pope and received it back as a fief, thus becoming the pope's vassal and agreeing to pay him a yearly tribute. Henceforth the pope was his stanch friend, but John's troubles continued.

Among his other misfortunes was the loss of nearly all his great possessions in France, including lands that had been held by the English kings since the Norman Conquest. At the battle of Bouvines (bo͞o-vēn′) in northern France in 1214 Philip Augustus of France won a victory of great importance, driving the English almost entirely from the continent.



Battle of Bouvines

From a manuscript at Cambridge University. The drawing represents the turning point in the battle. In a charge led by one of King John's captains, King Philip Augustus of France was unhorsed and nearly slain. A soldier saved him at the cost of his own life.

237. The Great Charter (1215). — The chief event in the reign of King John, and one of the landmarks in history, was the drawing up of the Great Charter, — Magna Charta (kar′ta), — the document guaranteeing English liberty. John was eager to send an army to France to win back his lost provinces, but so ruthlessly had he trampled the rights of the barons in the dust that many of them refused to obey him. Led by Stephen Langdon, archbishop of Canterbury, and one of the bravest and best men of his time, the barons met and took a solemn oath that they would withdraw their allegiance to the king unless he agreed to guarantee their rights.

They drew up a charter defining the limits of the rights of the king. John at first refused to sign it, and the barons raised an army. At Run′nymede on the Thames (tĕmz) near London the unhappy monarch was surrounded and forced to yield. He signed the charter, took an oath to observe it, and affixed the seal of England (June 15, 1215). The barons appointed twenty-five of their number to see that the charter was observed by the king and to declare war on him in case it was not.

King John was wild with rage at what he had done. It is said that he "flung himself on the floor and gnawed sticks and straws in his fury." He had no thought of keeping his promise. He appealed to the pope for help, and the pope freed him from his oath, annulled the charter, and suspended Archbishop Langdon. And the English people who a few years before had decided against the king in favor of the pope, now decided against the king even though the pope was with him.

Civil war was imminent; both sides raised armies, and the barons were aided by an army from France. But suddenly, the next year, the war came to an end through the death of King John.

The Great Charter, wrung from King John at Runnymede, is the most famous document of its kind in the world. It was a new guarantee of rights which had formerly been enjoyed by the people, but which had been disregarded by King John.

It declared that "no freeman may be taken, or imprisoned, or disseized, or outlawed, or banished, or in any way destroyed . . . except by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land." It declared that justice should not in the future be sold to any one. Before this an innocent man might be imprisoned for years unless he was willing to pay a large sum to secure a trial, or his release; or a man might spend his life in prison without knowing why he was imprisoned.

The Great Charter secured the rights of the church, the barons, the towns, and, to a less extent, the people. It has stood all tests from that day to this. Various later kings attempted to rule with a despotic hand, but the people would at length revert to the Great Charter. No ruler has been wholly able to disregard it, and even to-day it is a living part of the British constitution.

IV. THE RISE OF THE JURY SYSTEM AND OF PARLIAMENT

238. The Ordeal and Other Forms of Trial. — There were several forms of "trial by ordeal" practiced by the crude society of the Middle Ages. The most common was the trial by fire or by water. An accused person was put to some severe test, the theory being that if he was innocent God would protect him from injury. Thus the accused was required to thrust his arm into boiling water, to carry a red-hot bar of iron nine yards, or to run barefoot and blindfold over a path strewn with red-hot plowshares.[1] These ordeals were often conducted in the churches under the supervision of the priests. But in 1215 the church condemned the ordeal.

The wager by battle was often employed to determine guilt or innocence. An accused man was required to fight another man and if defeated he was adjudged guilty. Supposed witches were often tried by being thrown into deep water, bound hand and foot. If they floated, they were pronounced witches and were taken out and put to death. If they sank, they were considered innocent, but they were not always rescued from drowning.

Another form of trial, used more on the Continent than in England, was called compurgation. An accused man would take a solemn oath that he was innocent and would have a number of his friends take an oath that they believed him. This proceeding often cleared him, as it was believed God would punish him and his friends if they swore falsely.

239. The Jury. — The origin of the jury is lost in obscurity. It developed slowly during the period of the early Norman kings. Henry II (sec. 235) did more perhaps to establish the jury than any other man. The jury system, which supplanted the old ordeal, is merely a plan of deciding a case at law by the verdict of a number of picked men, and the number came to be twelve.

At first the men chosen to serve as the jury were persons who knew about the case and they were therefore witnesses as well as judges; but it was not always easy to find so many who were familiar with the facts, and this led to introducing the testimony

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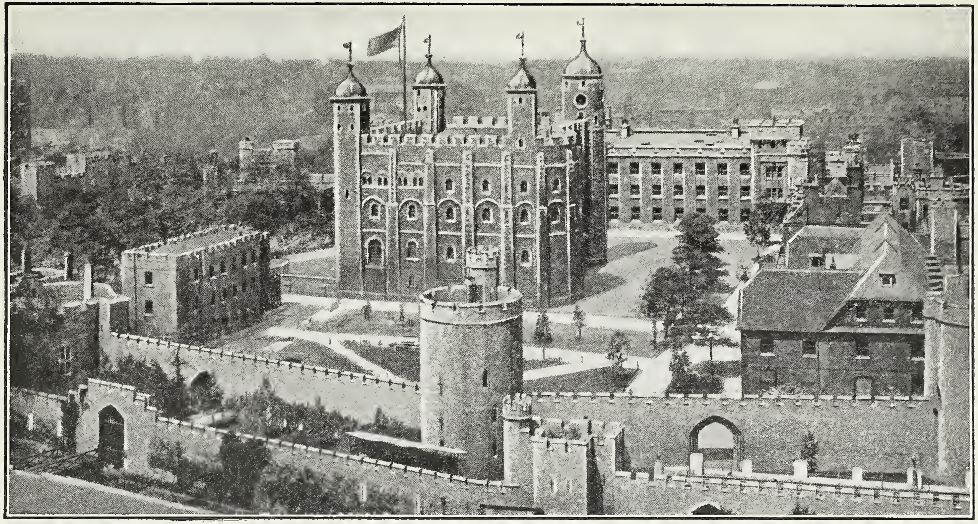
[1] Even a queen (Queen Emma, mother of Edward the Confessor), being accused by her enemies of wrongdoing, was required to walk barefoot over nine red-hot plowshares, and the chronicles tell us that she did so without injury.



The Tower of London

The Tower is an irregular mass of buildings erected at various periods, surrounded by a battlemented wall and a deep moat. Begun in the reign of William the Conqueror, as a royal palace and stronghold, it is best known in history as a prison.

of other persons as witnesses. The jurors then rendered a verdict partly on their own knowledge and partly from the testimony of witnesses. So well did this plan work that, in the course of time, the final form of the jury came about. The jurymen were required to render their verdict wholly from the evidence presented at the trial.

In this final form the American people adopted the jury system from England. The continental countries of Europe also employ the jury system, somewhat modified; but they did not adopt it until after it had been in use for many centuries in England.

240. **Beginnings of Parliament.** — A parliament (par'lĭ-ment) is a lawmaking body of men, elected, in part at least, by the people. It is known by different names in different countries. In this country we call it Congress or Legislature.

The first Parliament in which the masses of the people were represented came into existence in the reign of Henry III, son of King John. Henry enjoyed a very long reign (1216–1272). He was only a slight improvement over his father. He quarreled with his people, and the barons rose against him as they had risen against his father. The barons were led by Simon de Mont'fort, a man whose name should ever be remembered in English history.

After a battle with the king, De Montfort found himself master of the kingdom. He did not misuse his power. He called a Parliament (1265) in which the common people were represented. In earlier bodies of this kind only the nobles and churchmen took part. De Montfort invited the counties and towns to send each two citizens, and many of them did so.

Thirty years later (1295), under Edward I, the Model Parliament was called. The king then adopted the parliamentary system as a permanent factor in the government, and so it has remained. Nearly all modern governments have modeled their legislative bodies on the English Parliament.

At first the lords and common people met in one body, but they did not get on well together, and in the following century (1341) they separated into two houses, — the House of Lords and the House of Commons. As the centuries passed, the House of Commons gained gradually in power and importance and at length it became, as it is now, the great governing body of the nation.

SIDE TALKS

Harold and William. — "On an evil day in 1065 Harold, the son of Godwin, became stranded on the coast of Normandy. He fell into the hands of Duke William. Here he remained for many days. William treated him with royal generosity. The two men hunted and feasted together and William asked the hand of Harold's sister in marriage. He was only getting ready to introduce another subject — the succession to the English throne.

"At length William informed his guest that long ago King Edward (who had spent years in Normandy as a boy) had promised that if ever he became king of England, he, William, should be his successor, and he now asked if Harold would support him.

"Harold was William's prisoner and he knew it. Feasted and fêted though he was, he was not at liberty to depart. He assented, and promised to aid William to England's throne. But that was not all. He was asked to swear, and again he assented. Beside a chest covered with a cloth of gold he was required to kneel and take the oath. He did so, and then the crafty host uncovered the chest and displayed a collection of relics, the bones and ashes of saints, and upon these Harold had unconsciously taken his oath. . . . Harold turned pale when he saw what he had done. He departed for England.

"The following year, 1066, on the fifth of January, King Edward died. The people of England turned instinctively to Harold. He was brave and dauntless in war; he was kind and gracious in peace; he was greatly loved by the people. But there was his oath to support William to the throne. Can he violate such an oath? Here were the people crying for him to be their king; they needed him, and no other hand in England was so steady as his. Seldom has a conscientious man so great a question to decide. At length he decided that, as his oath was a forced one, he would disregard it, and when, two days after the aged king had passed away, the witan [council of nobles] chose him to fill the exalted station, he accepted and became king of England."

— ELSON, *Guide to English History*, pp. 47-49.

A King in Captivity. — When Richard the Lion-hearted was in Palestine on the third crusade, word reached him that his brother John, whom he had intrusted with large powers, had betrayed his trust and had usurped the English crown. Richard hastened to return. With a few friends he landed on the northern coast of the Adriatic Sea and set out to cross Europe on foot. He tried to conceal from the people the fact that he was king of England; but one day when roasting some meat on a spit he thoughtlessly left a costly ring on his finger. This awakened suspicion that he was no ordinary person and led to his capture near Vienna. Soon he was sold to his bitterest enemy, the emperor of Germany. For two years the royal prisoner was held captive, and in the meantime John seized the kingdom of England, declaring that his brother was dead.

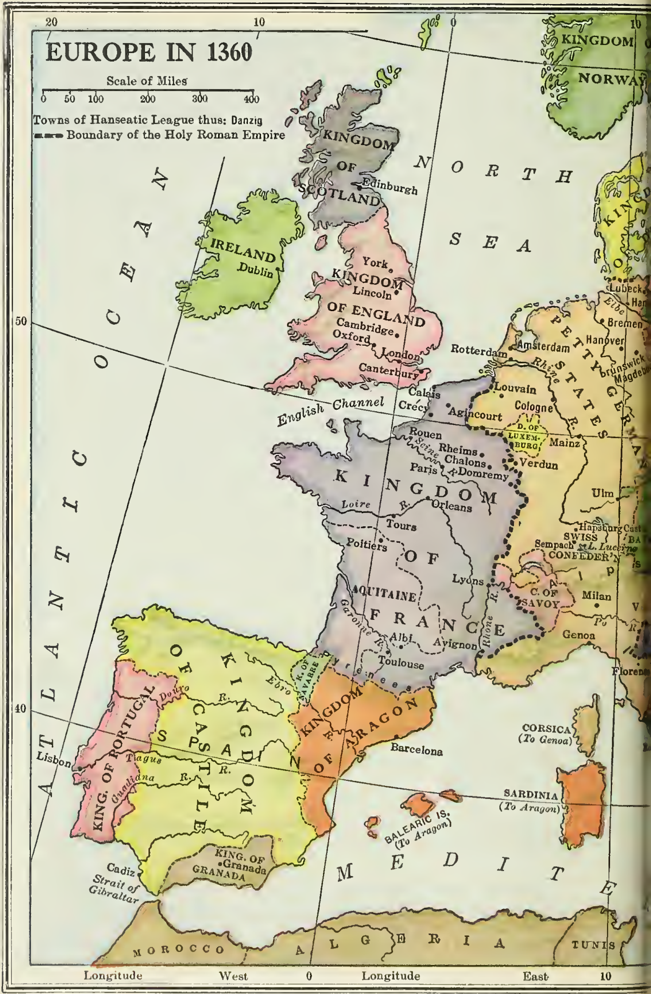
The English people at length heard that Richard was alive, and so heartily did they hate John that they raised a large sum of money, which they paid for the ransom of their captive king. John was terrified at the return of his brother, but the people rejoiced greatly. John fled across the Channel, but later returned and was pardoned by Richard through the entreaties of their mother, Eleanor.

Now a second time Richard had himself crowned king of England. Had he been content to remain with his people he might yet have left a great name in history, for he was a man of great ability. But he could not endure a quiet and peaceful life. Nothing but war could satisfy the soul of the lion-hearted Richard. After a few months, he crossed the Channel to his possessions in Normandy, never again to step foot on the soil of England. He began a war with the king of France, and for six years the people of England were heavily taxed to carry it on.

One day Richard met a religious hermit who told him that he had grievously offended God and that unless he mended his ways he would soon come to a miserable end. The hermit's prophecy came true. Richard was besieging a castle when a boy shot an arrow from the wall into his shoulder. In being extracted the iron barb tore the flesh. The wound would not heal, and after twelve days of agony the king saw that he must die. He had the boy that shot the arrow brought into his presence and asked, " What have I done to thee that thou hast killed me? "

" You slew my father and my two brothers with your own hand and you intended to kill me. Take any revenge on me you like," answered the lad.

Richard forgave the youth and ordered his release, but after Richard was dead his soldiers tortured the boy to death.



EUROPE IN 1360

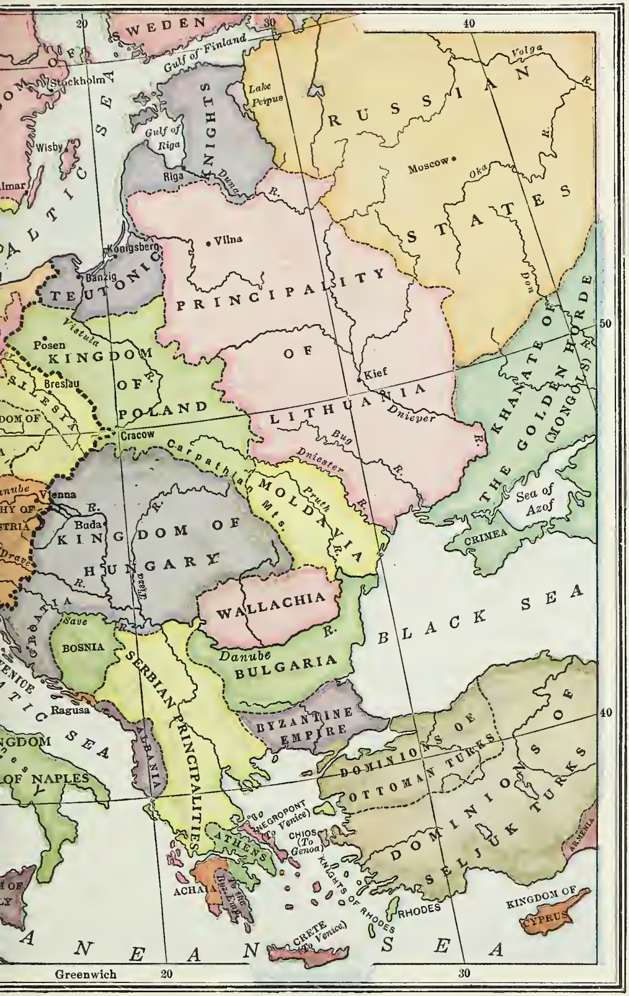
Scale of Miles

Towns of Hanseatic League thus: Danzig

▬ ▬ Boundary of the Holy Roman Empire

0
50
100
200
300
400
20
10
0
10
50
40
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
Edinburgh
IRELAND
Dublin
KINGDOM OF ENGLAND
York
Lincoln
Cambridge
Oxford
London
Canterbury
KINGDOM
NORWAY
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
English Channel
Calais
Crecy
Agincourt
Rotterdam
Amsterdam
Lubeck
Bremen
Hanover
Brunswick
Magdeburg
Elbe
PETTY STATES
Rhine R.
Louvain
Cologne
D. OF LUXEMBURG
Mainz
Verdun
Rouen
Seine
Rheims
Chalons
Paris
Domremy
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Loire R.
Orleans
Tours
Poitiers
AQUITAINE
Lyons
Rhone R.
Garonne R.
Albi
Avignon
Toulouse
Ulm
Hapsburg Cast.
SWISS CONFEDER'Y
Sempach
L. Lucerne
C. OF SAVOY
Milan
Po
Genoa
Florence
Pyrenees
K. OF NAVARRE
KINGDOM OF ARAGON
Barcelona
Ebro
Douro R.
Tagus R.
Guadiana R.
KINGDOM OF CASTILE
SPAIN
KING. OF PORTUGAL
Lisbon
KING. OF GRANADA
Granada
Cadiz
Strait of Gibraltar
CORSICA (To Genoa)
SARDINIA (To Aragon)
BALEARIC IS. (To Aragon)
MEDITE
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
TUNIS
Longitude West
0
Longitude East
10

Following 278


SWEDEN
Stockholm
Wisby
lmar
Gulf of Finland
BALTIC SEA
Gulf of Riga
Riga
Lake Peipus
Duna R.
TEUTONIC KNIGHTS
Königsberg
Danzig
RUSSIAN STATES
Volga R.
Moscow
Oka
Don
Vilna
PRINCIPALITY OF LITHUANIA
Kief
Dnieper
Bug
Dniester R.
KINGDOM OF POLAND
Vistula
Posen
Breslau
SILESIA
Cracow
Carpathian Mts.
Vienna
Buda
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
Tisza
Drave
Danube
MOLDAVIA
Pruth R.
WALLACHIA
Danube R.
BULGARIA
THE KHANATE OF THE GOLDEN HORDE (MONGOLS)
Sea of Azof
CRIMEA
BLACK SEA
CROATIA
Save R.
BOSNIA
SERBIAN PRINCIPALITIES
Ragusa
ADRIATIC SEA
VENICE
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
ALBANIA
BYZANTINE EMPIRE
DOMINIONS OF OTTOMAN TURKS
DOMINIONS OF SELJUK TURKS
ARMENIA
NEGROPONT (To Venice)
CHIOS (To Genoa)
ATHENS
ACHAIA
(To the Byz. Emp.)
KNIGHTS OF RHODES
RHODES
CRETE (To Venice)
KINGDOM OF CYPRUS
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Greenwich
20
30
40
50

Questions and Topics. — I. Why is the history of England important to Americans? Explain why our country uses the English language. What Teutonic tribes settled in England? Who were the Danes? Write a brief account of Alfred in peace.

II. Where is Normandy and what people lived there? Which in your opinion had the better right to the English throne, William or Harold? Why was the battle of Hastings important in the world's history? What effect had it on the language we speak?

III. From what two famous rulers was Henry II a descendant? Describe the character of Henry II; of Richard Cœur de Lion. Why is King John regarded as the worst of the English kings? Name a few of the main points of the Great Charter. In what way is it considered a part of the British constitution? What is a constitution? What is meant by "judgment of peers"?

IV. What was the ordeal? compurgation? Compare such trials with the trials of the Athenians (sec. 70). What are the advantages of the jury system? Can you name any defects in it? What is a parliament? When and by whom was the first English Parliament organized in which the common people were represented? When was the English Parliament separated into two houses, and why? Which house now has the greater power?

Events and Dates. — Reign of Alfred the Great, 871–901. The Norman Conquest, 1066. Reign of Henry II, 1154–1189. Death of Richard Cœur de Lion, 1199. Magna Charta, 1215. Rise of the Jury System. First Parliament containing representatives of the people, 1265. The Model Parliament, 1295.

For Further Reading. — Any good short history of England, such as those of Green, Ransome, Gardiner, Andrews, Cheyney, Walker, that may be found in the school library, which give a fuller narrative of this period. See also, Asser, *Life of Alfred.* Plummer, *Life and Times of Alfred the Great.* For source material see Ogg, *Source Book in Medieval History.* Robinson, *Readings in European History*, Vol. I, ch. XI.

CHAPTER XXI

BUILDING OF THE NATIONS

I. Decline of Feudalism; Growth of Cities

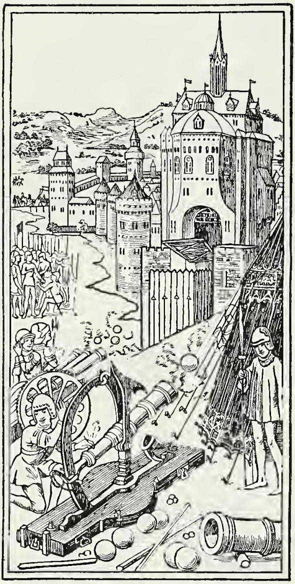
241. Feudalism and Gunpowder. — Feudalism, as noted in an earlier chapter, held sway in Europe for several hundred years; but after the thirteenth century it gradually lost its power. The decay was due partly to the crusades (sec. 228), partly to the growth of cities, and partly to the use of firearms.

Late in the Middle Ages the use of gunpowder became general in Europe, and it played an important part in unhorsing the feudal baron and in solidifying the kingdom. It was the custom of the feudal lord to keep his vassals in subjection by means of a small army of knights, mounted, armed, and thoroughly trained. A few such men could overcome a host of untrained peasants. But no coat of mail could protect its wearer from the leaden bullet, just as no castle walls could withstand the fire of artillery. When therefore the musket came into general use, the vocation of the armored knight was at an end, for the common man with little training was his equal.

The feudal baron could not afford to keep large armies and many cannon; the king alone could do this, and to the king the baron was obliged to yield his power. Thus gunpowder played an important rôle in breaking up feudal government and in transferring the governing power to the king.

242. The Growth of Cities. — The great cities of the Roman Empire had fallen into decay, and many of them had disappeared entirely. The Middle Ages were chiefly an agricultural period. But through the crusades and other causes the people came to desire luxuries and conveniences in addition to the bare necessities of life. These could come only with the growth of towns and cities, which are necessary to manufacturing and commerce. No better or more virile people can be found in the world than those who live on farms; but they are too scattered to act in unison, and we must look to the cities to take the lead in all lines of progress. Only in towns and cities do we find large libraries, and art galleries, and great universities. One cause of the lack of progress in the Middle Ages was the want of cities.

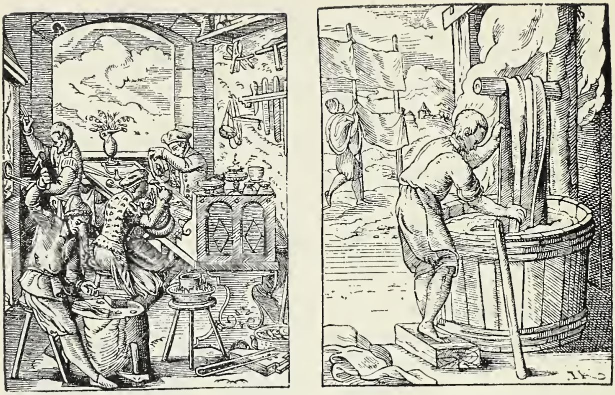
Gradually towns began to grow up, usually around a castle or a monastery. They brought great changes in the life of the people and had a profound effect on the feudal system. In the cities there came to be a rich merchant class who refused longer to be ground down by the exactions of a feudal master. The cities therefore sought release from their feudal burdens, and many of them obtained it. Some of them revolted and forced their lord to yield; a larger number obtained charters of liberty, sometimes complete independence, by purchase. A charter was a written contract showing just how much power, if any, remained to the feudal master.



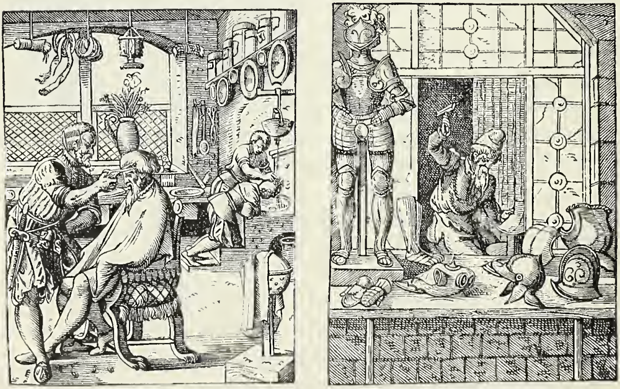
A Fifteenth Century Cannon

From an illuminated manuscript of Froissart's *Chronicles*.

Italy took the lead in this medieval city building, and we find in that country the famous cities of Florence, Ven'ice, Genoa (jĕn'ŏ-a), and Mil'an.



Goldsmith Dyer



Barber Armorer

Guild Craftsmen

From wood engravings made in the sixteenth century.

In France a city receiving a certain charter of rights was called a commune. In Germany and England, as well as in France, many of the finest cities of to-day had their origin in the Middle Ages. The growth of cities greatly fostered the handicrafts or trades. A young man learning a trade had to serve as an "apprentice" for several years, often living in the home of his master, before he could become a master workman. The craftsmen represented many employments, — the dyers, the weavers, the goldsmiths, the millers, the masons, and others. There was little machinery; everything was made by hand. The master workmen formed themselves into associations called guilds, for the purpose of regulating the trade in their own interest. These guilds bore only a slight resemblance to the modern labor union; for the master workman was usually in business for himself, and not merely an employee.

II. BEGINNINGS OF THE FRENCH NATION

243. **Early Kings.** — The French people of to-day are descendants of three ancient peoples — the Gauls of Cæsar's day, the Romans who settled among them, and the Franks and other tribes who came later from Germany.

We have noted the brilliant victory of Charles Martel over the Saracens at Tours in 732 (sec. 204), the founding of a great empire by his grandson, Charlemagne, with France as its seat, and also the division of the empire in 843 by the treaty of Verdun (ch. XVII).

The history of France as a separate nation may be said to have begun with the treaty of Verdun, when Charles the Bald, grandson of Charlemagne, became king. The descendants of Charlemagne, like the descendants of Clovis (sec. 205), were weak rulers, and in 987 one of the great dukes of France, named Hugh Capet (kā'pĕt or kȧ-pĕ'), gained the throne. He was the first of the Capetian (ka-pē'shan) dynasty, which reigned for eight hundred years.

During the two centuries following the accession of Hugh Capet there is little that is striking in the history of France. The country was under the feudal rule of many counts and dukes, among whom was William the Conqueror (sec. 232). The next important reign was that of Philip Augustus (1180–1223), whom we have already met, with Richard Cœur de Lion of England, on the third crusade (sec. 226).

During his long reign Philip did much toward building up a strong monarchy in France. He greatly weakened the feudal lords and strengthened the royal power; he robbed the king of England of his vast possessions in France; he embellished and fortified Paris, paved the streets, improved the schools, and did many other things for the upbuilding of his country. The great blot on his character was his approval of the murderous crusade against the Walden′sians and the Albigenses (ăl-bĭ-jĕn′sēz).[1]

244. Saint Louis (1226–1270). — Louis IX, known in history as Saint Louis, was the noblest and most admirable of all the French kings. A boy of nine years when he came to the throne, Louis and his kingdom were under the care of his mother during the following ten years. Soon after becoming of age he began to show those great qualities of soul for which the world remembers him.

Saint Louis reformed the courts and abolished trials by private duels. He humbled the great feudal barons and, though a faithful churchman, he refused to allow the clergy to control his kingdom. He liberated large numbers of wretched serfs.

Not only was Louis IX a man of perfect private morals, a soul overflowing with Christian charity, he was also a great ruler, brave and fearless in battle, though he never waged war unjustly. In 1270 he embarked on the last crusade and died of pestilence in North Africa. Of all the medieval kings, Saint

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[1] The Waldensians were followers of Peter Waldo of Lyons, an eloquent preacher, who urged a simple form of worship. The Albigenses, so named from the town of Albi, were opposed to the existing forms of church and state. Both sects refused to acknowledge the pope as the true head of the church.

Louis alone is favorably compared with Alfred the Great of England and with Charlemagne.

Medieval France reached the acme of power under Philip IV, the Fair (1285–1314), the grandson of Saint Louis. Philip was one of the ablest of the French kings. He is remembered for his many reforms, his efficient government, and his long and successful contest with the papacy. He won a complete victory over Pope Boniface VIII, who had issued a bull declaring that no secular ruler should require the clergy to pay taxes.

III. THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

245. Crécy and Poitiers. — The longest war of the Middle Ages was between France and England. It began in 1337, continued for more than a century, with intervals of peace, and is known as the Hundred Years' War. King John of England had lost nearly all the English possessions in France (sec. 236); but when the direct line of French kings died out, Edward III (1327–1377), one of the English monarchs, laid claim to the French crown because his mother was a French princess. The long war that followed was more disastrous to the French than to the English, for the fighting was all on French soil, but the French won in the end.

The war began in earnest when Edward crossed over to France with 30,000 men. The king of France, with a much larger army, met him at Crécy (krā-sē′), and here was fought one of the famous battles of the Middle Ages (1346). The English won a most signal victory. When the battle was over, 30,000 Frenchmen, including twelve hundred knights and eleven princes of the blood, lay dead on the gory field.

This battle is remembered as the first in which gunpowder was a factor. Says a writer of the time, the English used " bombards, which, with fire, sent little balls of iron to frighten and destroy the horses." Perhaps no one then dreamed that in the coming centuries firearms were to become almost the sole agent of destruction in battle.

In the battle of Crécy the famous Black Prince, the fourteen-year-old son of the king of England, displayed wonderful courage and ability. At the close of the battle the king clasped the boy in his arms and exclaimed, "Right royally you have behaved to-day and proved yourself worthy of a crown." But the Black Prince died before his father and never wore a crown.

Ten years later, in 1356, was fought the battle of Poitiers (pwȧ-tyā′), with the same result, a great victory for the English. In this battle the king of France was captured by the Black Prince.

246. The Black Death. — Between these two battles a scourge more dreadful than war swept over the warring countries. It was a pestilence called the Black Death. It came out of Asia and reached France and England in 1348–1349. An affection of the lungs and throat, a quickened pulse, a strange luster in the eye, and death, swift and relentless, came within two or three days.

Business and war came to a standstill. Silence reigned in London and Paris, broken by the wails of the dying and the rumbling of the dead cart with its ghastly load. It was said that half the people of England perished through this frightful scourge, and that in some parts of France the proportion was still greater.

Many estates were left tenantless, and the result was that free laborers were in greater demand, so that wages rose. The English parliament passed laws prohibiting laborers from asking higher wages than before the pestilence. This law was only partly enforced and it led to a rising of the peasants in 1381 in what was known as the Wat Tyler insurrection. This was put down with a strong hand, as was a similar uprising in France; but in both France and England the condition of the peasants became permanently better.

247. Joan of Arc. — One searches in vain through the pages of history to find a more entrancing and astonishing tale than the story of the young French peasant girl who became the commander of armies, the winner of battles, the deliverer of a nation.

For long periods after the death of Edward III in 1377 the war was suspended, but it broke out again early in the next century. Henry V, king of England in 1415, won at the battle of Agincourt (ȧ-zhăɴ-ko͞or′) another great victory over the French, similar to the victories at Crécy and Poitiers. A few years later the English had control of almost all France north of the Loire (lwär), and they were besieging Or′leans.

There was a young peasant maid, tending her father's flocks among the hills of eastern France, — Joan (jōn) of Arc. She was a good, simple-minded girl, and she had a deeply religious nature. For several years she brooded over the unhappy condition of her country. She believed that she heard voices calling on her to lead the French to victory. Again and again she heard the calling and at last she resolved to obey. Her long hair was shorn, she put on men's clothes, and after a long, dangerous journey she was brought into the presence of the king, the youthful Charles VII, who had not yet been crowned (1429). She was scarcely twenty years of age.

The people had come to believe in her, but the king hesitated. "Gentle Dauphin,[1] why do you not believe in me?" she said at their first meeting. She promised him that if he would give her men she would raise the siege of Orleans and lead him to Rheims (rēmz or răɴs) to be crowned. He complied and she rode at the head of the army. The rough, hardened soldiers were wild with enthusiasm. They believed that a saint, a heavenly messenger, had been sent to lead them. At her command they renounced their sins and took communion. They then marched upon Orleans. Joan led the fight. With her own hands she placed a ladder against a wall, and mounting it received a serious wound.

The English were soon in flight. The city was saved, many other towns were recovered from the English, and before the end of that same year King Charles was crowned at Rheims.[2]

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[1] Dauphin (dô′fin) was the title of the heir of the French crown.

[2] The Cathedral of Rheims was built in the thirteenth century on the site of the church where Clovis was baptized in 496 (sec. 194). Within its walls the kings

Joan of Arc, now called the Maid of Orleans, had accomplished the marvelous task she had set out to do. She now begged the king to let her go back to her father's home among the hills where she might again become a shepherd lass. But the king refused to let her go; he believed she would win more victories, for all France was aglow with enthusiasm over this wonderful girl.

Again and again was Joan engaged with the army, and at last she fell into the hands of the English. The English believed that she was a sorceress, a witch, an agent of the devil. They condemned her to death and burned her at the stake. In the presence of death her lofty spirit was undaunted; she died like a heroine and a saint (1431). An English officer who had come to jeer exclaimed, "We are lost; we have burned a saint!" [1]

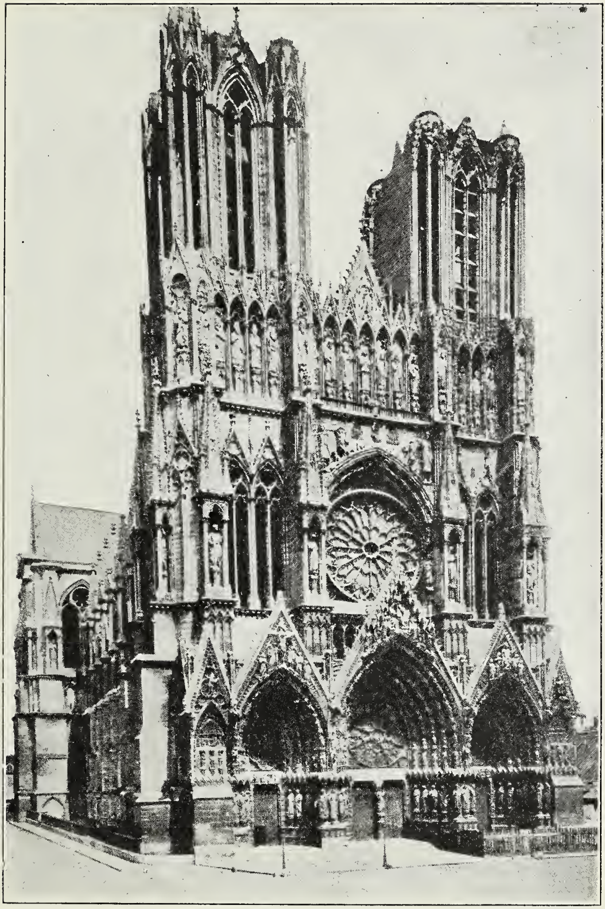
The spirit aroused in France by this heroic young life did not die. The feeling of patriotism, scarcely known in Europe during the Middle Ages, had been kindled. The war dragged on for many years longer, but the English lost steadily. The Hundred Years' War came to an end in the year of the fall of Con-

of France were crowned, and here Joan of Arc witnessed the most famous coronation of all, that of Charles VII, in 1429.

This cathedral was a splendid example of early French Gothic architecture. The three portals shown in the picture opposite, deeply recessed, were surmounted by the pointed arches which are typical of the style. The sides and overhead vaulting of the arches were adorned with statues and carvings representing Biblical scenes. Over the entire outside of the building were scattered or grouped together thousands of carved stone figures. Beginning with the creation of the world and continuing through the New Testament the story of the redemption of mankind was told. In the Middle Ages, when books were few, such sculpture was a valuable means of education.

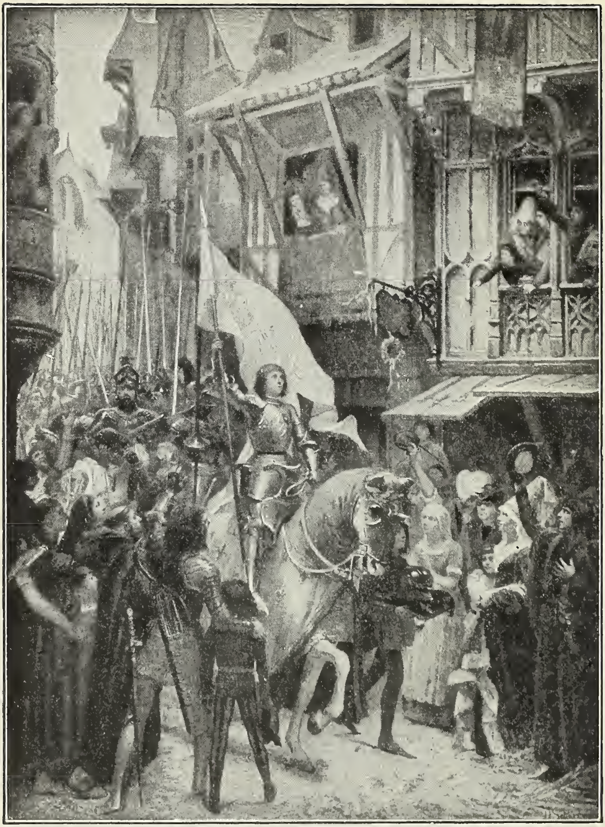
The round "Rose Window" over the central doorway, nearly 40 feet in diameter, was filled, like the windows of Gothic churches generally, with beautiful painted glass. Still higher, extending across the front below the towers, was a row of 42 colossal statues representing the French kings, and called the Gallery of Kings. The whole was crowned by square towers rising 267 feet from the ground. The cathedral was wrecked by the bombardment of German guns in the World War.

[1] In 1890 a beautiful monument was erected to Joan of Arc at the village of Domremy (dôɴ-rĕ-mē′), her birthplace. In 1920 she was formally declared a saint by the authorities of the Roman Catholic Church.



© *Brown Brothers*

Cathedral of Rheims in 1914



JOAN OF ARC'S ENTRY INTO ORLEANS

Joan rode at the head of the French army in a full coat of mail, armed with the ancient sword said to have been the one with which Charles Martel had vanquished the Saracens (sec. 204). She carried a white banner of her own design, embroidered with the lilies of France.

stantinople (1453), twenty-four years after Joan's wonderful victory at Orleans. The English were driven out of France, retaining only the city of Calais (kăl′ā or kȧ-lĕ′), which Edward III had conquered a hundred years before.

IV. Germany in the Middle Ages

248. Beginnings of Germany. — The Germany which we now know as a compact nation did not exist as such in the Middle Ages. At the treaty of Verdun, when Charles the Bald was made king of France, another grandson of Charlemagne, Louis the German, became king of Germany (sec. 211). In France, the king gradually obtained more power, at the expense of feudalism, until he became absolute monarch. Not so in Germany. Here the king, who was called the emperor, attempted to hold Italy within the empire and thus his attention was divided and he did not become strong in either country.

In time he lost control of Italy altogether, but did not thereby gain the ruling power in Germany. A few strong men we find among the German kings, as Otto the Great and Frederick Barbarossa (secs. 220, 226); but they did not succeed in forming a permanent union. The great feudal lords, of whom there were several hundred, were almost independent, the emperor held an empty title, and, as we shall see in later chapters, Germany did not have a solid national government until 1871.

249. The Seven Electors and the Hapsburgs. — When the old line of German kings died out, the feudal lords assumed the right of electing a sovereign. As time passed this power was usurped by seven men, four of whom were rulers of the greater German states and three of whom were high prelates of the church. They were called Electors.

For a long period the emperors were chosen by the electors from different great German families. The Hapsburgs were a noble family of Switzerland, so called from Hapsburg Castle, their dwelling place. For centuries the Hapsburgs were the most illustrious family in Europe. The first of the house to be chosen emperor was Rudolph, elected in 1273. Soon after this Rudolph came into possession of the duchy of Austria, which remained the chief seat of the family until its downfall in 1918. After the reign of Rudolph's son, the imperial crown was lost by the Hapsburgs for a long time, but was recovered in 1437, after which it remained in this one family for more than three hundred years.

250. Independence of Switzerland. — The country which is now Switzerland was a part of the German Empire in the early Middle Ages. The house of Hapsburg had large possessions in that land and exercised some control over the people. But the Swiss, a race of hardy mountaineers, were intense lovers of liberty. Three of the cantons, or provinces, about Lake Lucerne (lŭ-sûrn′) formed a confederation and determined to cast off the yoke of the Hapsburgs. Other cantons joined them later and several desperate battles were won against the Austrians. The most famous of these was the battle of Sempach (zĕm′pȧĸ) in 1386. In this battle the Austrians were signally defeated and Leopold (lē′o-pōld), head of the Hapsburg house, was killed. From that time the Swiss were an independent people.

There are many legends and stories of this early heroic age of Switzerland. The most famous is that of William Tell, which is no doubt a myth. But the story of Arnold von Winkelried (ving′kel-rēt), who sacrificed his life to save the Swiss army, is believed to be true. It was at the battle of Sempach. The little Swiss army was surrounded and hemmed in by a wall of gleaming Austrian spears. Winkelried rushed alone upon the enemy, gathering as many spear points as he could reach, bore them down and thus opened a path through which his comrades rushed to victory.

251. German Free Cities and the Hanseatic League. — The weakness of the German government left the various parts of the empire to govern themselves in their own way. The feudal lords kept control of their dominions as long as they could, but many of the towns refused to continue under feudal government and became free and self-governing.

There were various leagues of cities, one of which, the Hanseatic (hăn-sē̇-ăt′ĭk) League, became very famous and continued for more than two centuries. It was formed for the protection and extension of commerce, and included more than eighty cities. It had fleets and armies and it commanded the respect of kings and emperors.

V. ITALY

252. Divisions of Italy. — In the long past days when the power of Rome was at its height Italy was the most important country in the world. But the greatness of the land was gone. The character of the people had greatly changed. Great numbers of the old Roman families had died out, and Goths and Lombards and Normans had taken their places.

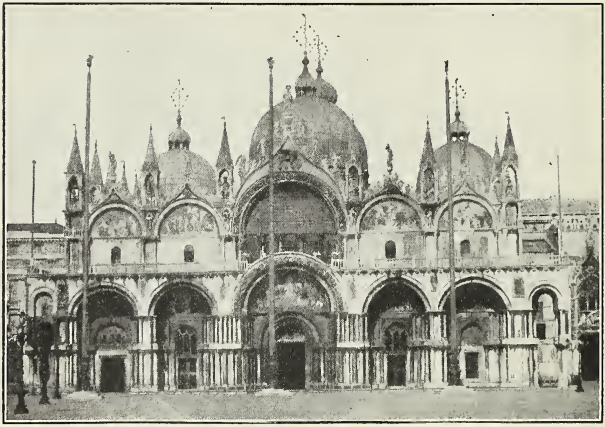
Italy was without any central government. The country was divided into a number of states, as the kingdom of Naples, the republics of Venice and of Florence, the Papal States, and the duchy of Milan. These had no connection with one another, they often fought with each other, and sometimes were fought over by the kings of France and Spain.

While England and France and Spain during the Middle Ages were slowly uniting into compact kingdoms, Italy, like Germany, remained divided until after the middle of the nineteenth century.

253. Italian Cities. — The want of a central government in Italy, as in Germany, made it easy for the cities to become and remain independent and self-governing. The most important of these cities, or city-states, were Venice, Florence, Genoa, and Milan.

Venice, built on low islands near the Adriatic coast, grew into a great power, and so continued for centuries. She had fleets and armies, controlled much territory, and her commerce, like that of Phœnicia of the ancient world, extended over all known seas. Her ships brought wool from England and furs from the Black Sea. Venetian merchants in caravans traversed the weary deserts of Persia and China, returning with spices, silks, and precious stones.

The great rival of Venice was Genoa. The two cities became bitter enemies and were at war with each other at intervals for a hundred years. Whenever their ships met on the sea they fought. In one of these ship-duels the Genoese vessel was commanded by Christopher Columbus, afterward the discoverer of America. After the two crews had fought for some time both



St. Mark's of Venice

This cathedral is in the Byzantine style. It is adorned with more than 500 marble columns, and is decorated inside and out with almost 46,000 square feet of mosaics in brilliant colors. Over the principal entrance are four horses in gilded bronze. They are supposed once to have adorned the triumphal arch of Nero, and afterwards that of Trajan. Constantine sent them to Constantinople, whence the Venetians brought them to Venice in 1204, after the fourth crusade (sec. 226). In 1797 they were taken to Paris by Napoleon, where they graced for a time the triumphal arch of the Carrousel (page 207). In 1815 they were restored to Venice. During the World War they were carried to Rome to save them from possible destruction by enemy airplanes, but after the war they were replaced on St. Mark's.

ships took fire. Many men were lost, but Columbus saved his life by swimming to shore, six miles away.

Florence also was an Italian city of much importance. The record of Florence in literature and the arts was for a time almost so great as to give it rank with Athens of ancient Greece (sec. 80). It was in this city that the Medici (mĕd′ē-chē) family arose and became one of the most famous ruling families of the Middle Ages.

The greatness of the city of Rome had long passed away, but in the middle of the fourteenth century a determined effort was made by Rienzi (rĭ-ĕn′zē), who took the title of tribune of the people, to restore the faded glory of the city on the Tiber. For years rival factions of the nobles had fought for supremacy. The popes no longer dwelt in the Eternal City. They had fled to France and taken up their abode at Avignon (ȧ-vē-nyôɴ′), where they remained most of the time for seventy years (1305–1377). This absence of the popes from Rome was known as the Babylonian Captivity.[1]

When the city was at the height of confusion and disorder, Rienzi made eloquent appeals to the people to remember their greatness, to awaken from their lethargy and deliver themselves from bondage. He was successful. He won the people's applause and was made ruler of Rome (1347). He drove the warring barons from the city, and attempted to unite all Italy under a republic. But his triumph was short-lived. Rienzi was killed in an uprising, and Rome relapsed into disorder.

VI. Formation of the Kingdom of Spain

254. Ferdinand and Isabella. — Most of the Visigoths, after capturing Rome in 410, had moved on westward and settled in Spain (sec. 190); three hundred years later they were conquered by the Saracens, Mohammedan invaders, who took possession of the country (sec. 204).

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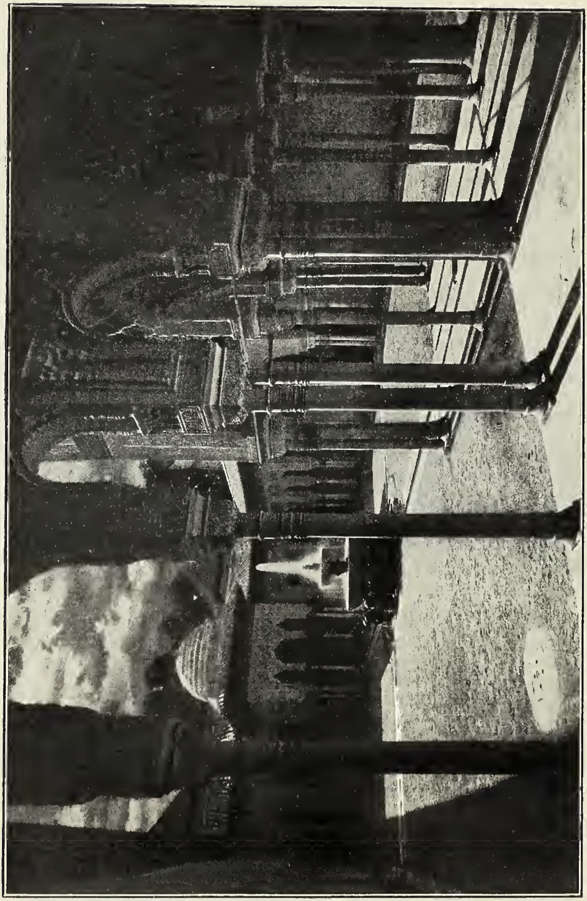
[1] Another cause of the removal of the popes to France was the triumph of Philip the Fair over the papacy (sec. 244). For many years the popes were under the influence of the French kings.



Court of the Lions in the Alhambra

For 800 years the Mohammedans of Spain, who came to be called Moors, remained in that country; but they steadily lost ground. Little by little the growing states of Spain pushed the Moors farther south until, late in the Middle Ages, they occupied only a small section known as the kingdom of Granada (gra-nä′da).[1]

Two of the most important of the Christian states in Spain were Castile (kăs-tēl′), the largest of all, occupying the central part, and Aragon (ăr′a-gŏn), in the eastern part facing the Mediterranean toward Italy.

These states had remained independent for centuries, but in 1469 Ferdinand, who later became king of Aragon, married Isabella, heir to the throne of Castile. This marriage brought about the union of the two countries, Castile and Aragon, in 1479, and thus was formed the kingdom of Spain, destined to include the entire peninsula, except Portugal in the western part.

Isabella was a queen among women as well as queen of Spain. Tall and graceful, say the chronicles of the time, excelling in wisdom and virtue, she came as near being the perfect type of sovereign as any king or queen who ever graced a throne.

Soon after the union of Castile and Aragon there was order and good government such as Spain had never known. Thousands of highwaymen were severely dealt with, the castles of the robber knights were torn down, and for the first time in centuries the roads of Spain were safe to the unarmed traveler.

The one dark shadow on the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella was their introduction of the Inquisition, or Holy Office. The Inquisition, which had already been introduced into France and Italy, was a system of courts for the trial of heresy. Any one whose belief did not strictly conform to the teachings of the church was subject to being condemned by this court. The penalties were banishment, imprisonment, and burning at the stake. In Spain the Inquisition at first bore most heavily upon the Jews. After two thousand of them had been burned to death and many others had suffered milder punishments, the Jews were expelled from the country; more than half a million were forced to leave Spain (1492).

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[1] The Alham′bra, shown on the opposite page, was the most remarkable building in Granada. It was built at different times, being really a series of palaces, each with a separate entrance and an open court of its own surrounded by rooms. The Court of the Lions, the most beautiful of all, was begun in 1377. It is surrounded by an arcade of Moorish arches decorated with exquisite fretwork. The overflow water from the lion fountain in the center passes in runlets from the court to cool the surrounding rooms. Washington Irving lived in this palace for a time, while gathering material for his book *The Alhambra.*

255. Conquest of Granada. — The one spot in all Spain that was still under Moslem dominion was the little kingdom of Granada on the Mediterranean shore in the far south. The Moors were an industrious, frugal people. Their capital city, Granada, situated far up the mountain slope, 2000 feet above the sea, enjoyed perpetual spring, and was one of the richest and most beautiful cities in Europe. Here stood the Alhambra, the palace of the last of the Moorish kings, the ruins of which are among the most interesting landmarks of the Middle Ages.

Slowly and irresistibly, for hundreds of years, the Christians had driven the Moslems southward, and now, after Ferdinand and Isabella had restored order in their own dominions, they determined on the conquest of Granada.

After a war of ten years the kingdom of Granada was overthrown (1492). The cross replaced the crescent, and the banners of Castile and Aragon waved from the towers of the Alhambra. A few months later, within this same year, Spain sent out Christopher Columbus to the unknown West on the most famous of all sea voyages.

The Moors were permitted to remain in Spain for a hundred years longer, but the promise of the Spanish sovereigns that they should not be molested in their religion was broken, and many of them were burned at the stake.

VII. Scandinavians and Slavs

256. Scandinavia. — The two northern peninsulas extending in opposite directions, comprising Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, are known as Scandinavia. The Scandinavians are a hardy, virile people of Teutonic stock. In the Middle Ages they were known as Danes or Northmen. They colonized Iceland and made many incursions into Central Europe, France, and England, where great numbers of them remained.

For centuries Sweden, Norway, and Denmark remained apart; but in 1397 at the Union of Calmar the three were united under one crown, each retaining its own government. The first to wear the triple crown was Queen Margaret of the house of Denmark. Half a century later Sweden broke away, while Norway and Denmark remained under one ruler.

257. **Russia.** — The Russians are the chief people in the Slavic branch of the Indo-Europeans. Until the ninth century they had only tribal governments, although occupying a large part of the land we now know as Russia. Rurik, a brave chieftain from Norway, then became the founder of the first royal dynasty in Russia. Under his successors, late in the tenth century, the Russians accepted the Orthodox Greek form of Christianity.

In the thirteenth century a great calamity befell the people of Russia. The Mongols or Tartars from Asia overran the country, conquered the people, and held them in bondage for more than two centuries. Their civilization was thus greatly retarded and not until modern times did Russia play a great part among the nations. The deliverer of Russia from the Tartar hordes was Ivan the Great (1462–1505), who reëstablished his nation on a firm and enduring basis.

258. **Other Slavic Peoples.** — Another important Slavic people are the Poles. The great Slav movement between the second and the sixth century resulted in the dispersion of the Poles over a large portion of Central Europe. The majority of them came to occupy the extensive region between Russia and Germany, bordering on the Baltic Sea. Polish history, however, before the tenth century is legendary. Late in the tenth century the Poles were converted to Christianity. Later in the Middle Ages Poland came to be a very extensive country, much larger than France.

Bohemia has been occupied by its present Slavic people since the sixth century. There were various tribes, under the common name of Czechs (chĕks). In the ninth century they embraced Christianity introduced from Germany. For many years Bohemia formed a state in the Holy Roman Empire and at one time it was one of the most powerful realms in Europe.

Three other Slavic peoples — the Serbs, the Croats, and the Slovenes (slo-vēnz') — are together known as Jugo-Slavs (yoo'go-slävz) or South Slavs. The Serbs maintained a separate government since early in the Middle Ages, but their struggle for independence cost them more than a century of warfare. A Serbian empire, established by Stephen Dushan' (1331–1355) embraced large parts of Macedonia and Greece; but it soon crumbled under the ravages of the Asiatic Turks.

The Croats came from the Carpathian mountain region in the seventh century. Early in the tenth century they won their independence from the Eastern Roman Emperor; but about two centuries later a large part of Croatia (kro-ā'shi-a), as their country was called, was annexed to Hungary. The Slovenes, like the Croats, came from the Carpathian region in the sixth or seventh century and made their home south of the Danube, but their land was annexed by Austria.

Questions and Topics. — I. Describe the form of government called feudalism (ch. XVIII). In what way did the use of gunpowder contribute to its downfall? the crusades? the growth of cities? What caused the decay of the cities of the Roman Empire? What caused the building of cities in the Middle Ages? What advantages has country life over city life? What advantages has city life over country life? Tell what you know about city building in Italy; in France. What was a guild?

II. From what peoples are the French descended? What famous treaty was made at Verdun? What part did Verdun play in the World War of 1914–1918? Write an essay on Saint Louis. Who was Philip the Fair, and what did he do for France?

III. What was the general course of the Hundred Years' War? What right had the English king to the lands of France? Is it ever desirable that a country be governed by another of different race and language? What was the Black Death? Can such scourges be prevented at the present day? How? Under whose jurisdiction do such preventive measures come? Tell the story of Joan of Arc.

IV. How did the nation we call Germany first begin? Why did it not have a compact government? What can you say of the seven electors? Who were the Hapsburgs, and why do we give them special attention? Describe the gaining of independence of Switzerland. What was the importance of the Hanseatic League?

V. Name the important Italian cities of the Middle Ages. Why did Venice become an important commercial power? What city is favorably compared to ancient Athens and why? What had caused Rome to fall into decay? Tell the story of Rienzi. What important movement did he begin?

VI. What early races occupied Spain? Why was the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella important? What do you think of the character of Isabella? Who were the Moors, and when did they gain a foothold in Spain? Write an essay on Granada and the Alhambra (see encyclopedia).

VII. Name and locate the Scandinavian countries. Would you expect the Scandinavians or the Spaniards to be more virile and progressive? Why? Why was Russia slow in becoming a great nation? What is the nature of the movement in that country known as Bolshevism? Name the important Slavic countries.

Events and Dates. — Growth of Cities. The Hundred Years' War, 1337–1453. Battle of Crécy, 1346. Battle of Poitiers, 1356. The Black Death, 1348. Joan of Arc, d. 1431. Rudolph, first Hapsburg to become emperor, elected, 1273. The battle of Sempach and Swiss independence, 1386. The Hanseatic League. Kingdom of Spain formed by union of Castile and Aragon, 1479. Conquest of Granada and discovery of America, 1492. Denmark, Norway, and Sweden united (Union of Calmar) 1397. Ivan the Great (1462–1505) delivers Russia from the Tartars.

For Further Reading. — Lodge, *The Close of the Middle Ages.* Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages.* Cheyney, *An Introduction to the Industrial and Social History of England.* Ogg, *Source Book in Medieval History.* Robinson's *Readings.* Vol. I.

CHAPTER XXII

CIVILIZATION AND PROGRESS DURING THE MIDDLE AGES

259. Why the Dark Ages. — A primitive or barbarous people may be strong and mature in body and fully developed in imagination and emotions while they are yet but children in intellect. No people is too stupid to learn a new language or to embrace a new religion. If we bear these facts in mind we can understand why Europe during the Middle Ages was so far behind ancient Greece and Rome in civilization.

A great part of Europe was overrun by the barbarous Teutonic tribes of the north. From the peoples they conquered they absorbed the Christian religion and many learned the language of Rome; but they were not mature enough in mind and thought to take advantage of the culture, the arts, the science, the inventions of the conquered Romans. In all these, however, they were sure to excel in the future, for two reasons: (1) They were a strong, manly, hardy race, even surpassing the Roman in this respect. (2) They embraced Christianity.

On these two great facts rested the future civilization of Europe. Had either of them been wanting, Europe would have made no such progress as she has made in the past thousand years.

I. Language and Literature

260. European Languages. — Many languages are spoken to-day in Europe. Those of western Europe may be divided into two great families — the Romance languages and the Teutonic languages.

The Romance (Roman) languages are those based on Latin. When the barbarians came down from the north they gradually learned the speech of the people, that is, the Latin. But it was the spoken Latin of the common people, which differed considerably from the classical Latin as it was written. In the course of centuries the people's language differed more and more from the Latin, and the time came when the common people could not understand Latin at all.

A language which is only spoken changes more rapidly than a written language, and people who have little communication with one another will not long be of the same speech if the language is not written. Thus the people of France and those of Spain ceased to understand one another, though in both countries the language was derived from the Latin. In one country the spoken Latin gradually became the French language, and in the other it became Spanish.

Portugal, Italy, and Roumania also derived their languages from the Latin, and these five — French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Roumanian, are the Romance languages. All are based on the Latin and, though distinct, they greatly resemble one another.

We can imagine that if the printing press, railroads, and the telegraph had existed in those early times the Romance languages would not have come into existence. Latin would have remained supreme. We can imagine also that if it were not for the printing press and our means of rapid communication the United States and England would not continue to be of the same speech, nor even the widely-separated parts of our own country. Each would develop its own language, as the parts of Europe did in the Middle Ages.

The Teutonic languages are those derived from the speech of northern Europe, used since far back in prehistoric times. They are the German, Dutch, Flemish, Danish, Swedish, and English.[1]

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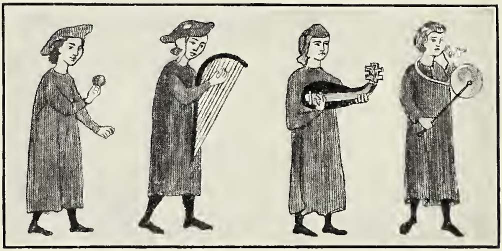
[1] The English is made up of two languages; 1. the Anglo-Saxon, a Germanic tongue spoken in England before the Norman Conquest (1066), and (2) the Norman-French, brought over by the conquerors. These two slowly blended into one and formed the English language.

The Slavic languages of eastern Europe include Russian, Polish, Czech, Serb, Bulgarian, and others.

261. Songs of the Troubadours; National Romances. — The Romance languages were spoken for hundreds of years before they were written, and the same is true of the Teutonic and Slavic tongues. In all the countries of western Europe, even in Germany and England, books were written in Latin. But in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, especially in southern France, songs of love and chivalry were written in the people's tongue. The writers were of the knightly class and were known as the Troubadours (trōō′ba-dōōrz). They carried their songs from court to court and sang them to the accompaniment of the lute. The most we know of the chivalry of the time comes to us through the songs of the Troubadours.



TROUBADOURS

From a twelfth century manuscript. These strolling musicians sang their songs to the accompaniment of the harp, lute, or other instruments. The second man from the right is carrying a lute, the man behind him a harp.

In the north the poets preferred to sing of arms and adventure. The hero of the national epic of France was Roland, who lost his life in Spain while fighting the battles of his master, Charlemagne.

The first great epic in the Spanish language told the story of the Cid, who thus became a national hero, though in real life he was a rapacious and cruel conqueror.

In Germany many lyrical songs were produced during the Middle Ages, but the most famous German poem was the epic that told the story of Siegfried (sēg′frēd). Siegfried was a prince of the north who made a long journey to Bur′gundy, that he might win the hand of the beautiful sister of the king of that country.

Of all the stories of the Middle Ages there is none more charming than the English romance of Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table. Arthur was supposed to have been king of Britain about the year 500, but it is not certain whether he was a real or only a mythical person. The many legends, the stories, and songs of Arthur were popular for centuries on the Continent as well as in England, and to this day they have not lost their charm. The great poem by Alfred Tennyson, *Idylls of the King*, is based on the story of Arthur.

262. Other Medieval Literature. — In addition to the lyrical songs and the legendary romances of the early period, each of the leading nations began to produce other literature of an enduring character, England and Italy taking the lead.

The first of the great English poets was Geoffrey Chaucer (1340–1400), who is called the Father of English Poetry. The greatest work of Chaucer is his *Canterbury Tales*. A company of thirty-two people, representing nearly all walks of English life, journey together on a pilgrimage to Canterbury. To beguile the time as they go along, the pilgrims tell tales to one another, and these are put into verse by the poet. With the spelling corrected to modern standards, these tales furnish delight and charm to modern readers, as they did to those of Chaucer's day.

The greatest of all Italian poets, Dan′te, belongs to the medieval period. Dante was born in 1265 of a Florentine family. His greatest poem, *The Divine Comedy*, the first great poem in the Italian language, places its author among the few great world-poets. There have been many English translations of *The Divine Comedy*.

II. The Universities and Education

263. Illiteracy of the Masses. — The great majority of the people during the Middle Ages were wholly without an education. They lived their simple life on their little farms as their fathers and grandfathers had done; they had their games and their festivals, they served their feudal landlords and paid heavy taxes, but they cared nothing for books and learning and knew little of the great world around them.

The age of printing had not yet come, books were few, and newspapers and magazines, such as we have in abundance, did not exist. But as time passed " Little Schools " were founded in many places for boys and girls. In these reading, writing, and a little music were taught. Larger schools, known as Latin schools, to which boys only were admitted, were established also. But on the whole only a small percentage of the people had the advantage of these schools.

264. The Universities and Student Life. — There are now in Europe many great seats of learning called universities. Most of them were founded in the Middle Ages, the first being about 1200. The traditions that Alfred the Great founded the University of Oxford and that Charlemagne founded the University of Paris are not based on fact, though both these great rulers were very friendly to education.

The University of Paris was chartered about 1200 by Philip Augustus (sec. 243), and Oxford dates from about the same time. Still earlier Paris had become a seat of learning, especially with the coming of Ab′elard. A little later than 1100 Abelard came to Paris, as a student. He soon surpassed his teachers as a debater and lecturer. At the age of thirty-six he was the most famous teacher in Europe, and thousands of students from all sections attended his classes. But the great teacher's life was embittered by an unfortunate love affair and by his being persecuted for heresy.

In many other cities, as Toulouse (tōō-lōōz′) and Orleans in

France, Cambridge in England, Rome and Naples in Italy, Prague in Bohemia, and Cologne in Germany, universities grew up, usually in connection with church schools or monasteries. In them were taught law and theology, philosophy, and a little science. The Latin language was employed in all of them. At Paris a student was punished if he used the French language.

The students sat on straw-covered floors, devoid of benches or seats of any sort, and listened to the professor expounding Aristotle (sec. 91) or some other ancient writer. They made no pretense of working out problems for themselves.

Student life was wild and rough, and many a fight took place between students and the people of the town. The " rushes " and " hazing " of some of our colleges are derived from the practices of the Middle Ages.

III. SCIENCE AND SUPERSTITIONS

265. Study and Practice of Medicine. — The study of the natural sciences was not encouraged in the Middle Ages. The people seemed to feel that they had knowledge enough from the past, and made little effort to investigate. Studies now common with us, such as botany, geography, and even history, had no place in the schools of those times. There was a feeling that as nature was the work of God, it was irreverent for man to be too inquisitive about her affairs.

There was some study of medicine, in various universities, but the science of medicine was exceedingly primitive and crude. Many remedies were supposed to be effective because nauseating. An English physician traveled about the country selling a medicine made of pulverized frogs. He wrote a book on the practice of medicine in which he refers to certain " disagreeable diseases," that is, light, self-curing diseases that bring no revenue to the doctor. There were three classes of medical men, — the regular physician, the surgeon, and the barber. A barber was permitted to treat bruises and minor ailments only.

All through the Middle Ages the practice of medicine was mixed with astrology. The doctors as well as the people believed that the position of the moon, the movements of the stars, and even the hour of the day, affected the body. It was also believed that the touching of the relics of the saints brought more cures than medicine, and for this and other reasons the physicians were held in low repute.

Before the time of the Black Death (1348) sanitary measures and the study of the causes of disease were almost unknown. Epidemics were thought to be " visitations " of divine displeasure, or perchance buffetings from Satan. A pestilence might be caused by a conjunction of two planets, or some other phenomenon of the skies. Sometimes it was believed that the Jews, the lepers, or the insane poisoned the water, and these hapless people were persecuted to death in consequence. The theory that disease arose from natural causes that might be discovered and removed was denounced as irreligious, as " an attempt to baffle the divine judgment."

Such ideas prevailed for several centuries, but after the time of the Black Death men began to clean streets, to filter water, and to study the causes of disease. From that time to the present medical science has made steady progress. The drugs and the knowledge of medicine brought from Arabia through the crusades (sec. 228) aided greatly in furthering medical science.

266. Fantastic Beliefs and Superstitions. — Many absurd and fantastic beliefs prevailed throughout the Middle Ages and were accepted even by learned men. It was believed, for example, that the body of an eagle was so hot that its eggs would be destroyed by the heat before hatching unless cold stones were mixed among them. The salamander, on the other hand, was so cold of body that fire could not burn it. It occurred to no one to examine and see if these things were true.

Magicians and sorcerers played on the credulity of the people, and when a real thinker and true scientist arose he was apt to be mistaken for one of these charlatans. Roger Bacon of England was one of the greatest thinkers in the world's history; but he was accused of employing black magic, and in consequence he spent many years in prison.

No people perhaps has ever been free from superstition. Its prevalence in the Middle Ages was especially notable. There was no lack of belief in phantoms and prodigies and visions, in bloody stars and fiery dragons in the sky.

No story was more widely accepted as truth than that of the Wandering Jew, first told in the thirteenth century by a crusader returning from the Holy Land. In brief it is this: A Jew named Joseph Cartaph'ilus was a doorkeeper to Pontius Pilate. His age was thirty years. When Jesus was being led to Calvary to be crucified he stopped for a moment's rest at the door of Cartaphilus, but the Jew struck him and bade him move on. Jesus turned to him and said, " I go, but thou shalt tarry till I come." The Jew thus sentenced to await the second coming of Christ became a wanderer over the world. He was pictured as an aged man with flowing white beard and downcast eyes. He was often seen to weep, but never to smile. For ages and ages he traversed the countries of Europe on foot, and was seen now and then in towns and villages. He could not die; he must await the coming of Christ. Sometimes he attended church services and at the mention of the name of Jesus he would beat his breast and burst into tears.

IV. Discoveries and Explorations

267. Geographical Knowledge; Marco Polo. — If people are ignorant and contented with their ignorance, there is little hope of their improvement. The contentment is worse than the ignorance.

In our age there is an intense desire to explore all lines of human knowledge, and this fact more than any other places us far in advance of the people of the Middle Ages. The men of that day were full of misinformation, much of which they could have corrected had they chosen to investigate, but they were too well contented with their knowledge to do so.

About the great globe on which they lived their knowledge was meager. China and Japan, with which a few of their merchants traded, were like a far-off dreamland. The Atlantic Ocean had no known boundary on the west, and Africa stretched on and on to the southward beyond all human knowledge.

Late in the thirteenth century Europe was partly awakened by the book of Marco Polo, an Italian. As a boy he had accompanied his father to the kingdom of Cathay′ (China). Here he remained for more than twenty years, and on his return to Europe he wrote a book describing the wonders of the far East. Polo's book served to rouse the European mind to some desire to study geography and to explore the unknown.

268. Great Navigators. — More than a hundred years passed after the time of Marco Polo before the age of navigation and discovery was ushered in. One of the most progressive men of the age in promoting geographical knowledge was Prince Henry the Navigator, of Portugal (d. 1460), who spent forty-eight years of his life promoting a better knowledge of the seas.

The mariner's compass had come into general use. This little instrument with its magnetic needle pointing ever northward enabled the mariner to know directions, however cloudy or foggy the weather.

Within half a century after the death of Prince Henry four or five navigators and discoverers made immortal names for themselves by penetrating far into the Sea of Darkness, as the Atlantic Ocean was called. By these voyages were dispelled many fantastic popular beliefs that still clung in the medieval mind. The theory that the earth is a globe had been accepted by many men of education, but even some of them believed that the opposite or " under " side of the earth was uninhabitable, for men could not walk with their heads downward. It was thought that since the earth sloped downward no ship would be able to return if it ventured too far down the slope. And it was thought, too, that under the tropics the sea boiled with fury and no life was possible in those hot regions.

Among the navigators of the time one who will ever head the list is Christopher Columbus. The story of the great voyage across the Atlantic, in which Columbus, searching for a new route to Asia, discovered a new world hitherto unknown to Europe, is too well known to American pupils to need repeating here; and the same is true of the stories of John Cabot of England and of Americus Vespucius, whose name was given to the great new double continent of the West.

Before the discovery of America Bartholomeu Dias (dē′äsh) had made a great voyage down the African coast, around the Cape of Good Hope, and some hundred miles into the Indian Ocean (1487). Eleven years later Vasco da Gama (gä′mä), taking the same route, crossed the Indian Ocean and reached India. These voyages disclosed an all-water route to the far East.

Far greater than the voyages of Dias and Da Gama was that of Ferdinand Magellan (ma-jĕl′an). With five small ships and two hundred men this dauntless seaman set forth on the stormy Atlantic (1519). From Spain he sailed southwest around the southern point of South America, through the strait that bears his name, and swung out into the greatest of all oceans. So tranquil and calm was this vast body of water that Magellan called it the Pacific, which means peaceful. Three years after starting, the survivors of the crew returned to Spain, — but not the five ships and two hundred men. There were but eighteen men and one little vessel, the rest, including Magellan himself, having perished.

The voyage of Magellan was one of the greatest in history. It dispelled forever the old ideas of the form and size of the earth. It gave to the world a more accurate geographical knowledge than anything else had ever done.

V. The Renaissance; Art and Architecture

269. Revival of Learning. — The word Renaissance means re-birth. It is applied to the general awakening of Europe in the latter part of the Middle Ages to higher aspirations and greater desire for learning. The impulse to make voyages and discoveries was a result of the Renaissance; as was also the new spirit in art and science and literature. One of the indirect causes of the Renaissance, as noted on a preceding page (sec. 228), was the impetus given European thought and culture by the crusades.

Before this awakening the study of science was discouraged, the classic literature of ancient Greece and Rome was utterly neglected, the beauties of nature were not appreciated. The spirit of the Middle Ages led earnest men to flee from the turmoils of the world, to shut themselves up in dismal cloisters, and spend their days in self-inflicted hardship and penitential prayer.

The Renaissance awakened men to the joy of living, to placing a value on life as a divine gift. It inspired one to cultivate art, to study nature, and to make the best of one's talents.

Through the study of nature were born the natural sciences, and these again brought about useful inventions and led to the wonderful revelations of Coper'nicus.[1] With the Renaissance was born the spirit of progress. It ushered in the beginning of modern times. It infused into Western Europe the wonderful energy, the spirit of inquiry on which the progress of modern times is based.

270. Leaders of the Renaissance. — The Renaissance had its beginning in Italy. From that country it spread into Spain, France, Germany, and England.

As a pioneer in the revival of learning, Pe'trarch, the Italian poet (1304–1374), holds the highest place. Though himself a famous poet, Petrarch's greatest work was in the line of awakening interest in the beauties of Greek and Latin literature. He searched in old libraries and musty garrets for long-forgotten manuscripts, the works of Homer and Cicero and many others. He led hundreds of students to a love of these ancient classics.

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[1] Copernicus (1473–1543), a Polish astronomer, published the theory of the solar system that bears his name, — that the sun is fixed in the sky and that the earth is one of its family of planets revolving round it. Copernicus deferred announcing his theory for thirty-six years, fearing he would be persecuted for heresy. Galile'o, an Italian scientist, was afterward imprisoned for accepting the Copernican theory.

Petrarch was an intense lover of nature, the first man perhaps, says one writer, in hundreds of years to climb a mountain for the love of the journey. He has been called the first modern man. The practice of teaching the Greek and Latin classics in our colleges and universities had its beginning in the influence of Petrarch.

A century or more after the time of Petrarch the Renaissance made its way beyond the Alps and spread to the northern countries. One of the first to be named in this connection is Erasmus (ḗ-răz′mus) of Rotterdam, who moved about and made himself at home wherever he could find congenial friends. Erasmus was a great scholar and an elegant writer. He was a merciless critic of evils in the church. In his most popular book, *The Praise of Folly*, he scores the fine-spun theories of theologians, the gluttony and corruption of priests and monks, and the superstitious attitude of common people towards saints and images.

In England the leader of the Renaissance was John Col′et of Oxford University. After a sojourn in Italy, where he sat at the feet of the greatest scholars of his time, he returned to England full of enthusiasm for the new learning. His lectures attracted wide attention, and among his admirers was Sir Thomas More. Even Erasmus, attracted by the fame of Colet, went to England, and these three, Colet, More, and Erasmus, labored together for the advance of education.

271. Revival of Art; Michelangelo.[1] — There was a wonderful outburst of genius in Italy as a result of the Renaissance. It found expression in painting, sculpture, and architecture. Only a few of the great artists can be noticed here.

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[1] Pope Julius II, a patron of the arts, gathered about him the famous trio, Bramante (brä-män′tā) the architect of St. Peters, Michelangelo (mī-kĕl-ăn′je-lō), and Raph′ael, all of whom are present in the group pictured in the frontispiece of this book, which is from a painting in the Corcoran Gallery of Art, Washington, D.C. The pope is seated on an armchair with Bramante and Raphael at his left. Michelangelo stands beside the lady. The old Greek statue of Apollo Belvedere was unearthed near Rome in the fifteenth century. It is now in the Vatican.

At the head of the list is the name of Michelangelo (1475–1564). As an artist, a sculptor, an architect, and a poet he stands high in the class of immortals, but his chief joy was in sculpture. If any man in history ranks with Phidias (sec. 82) as a sculptor, it is Michelangelo.

Born in Florence of poor parents, Michelangelo as a boy showed such indications of talent that he was invited to make his home in the palace and sit at the table of the governor of that city. At the age of twenty he went to Rome and was soon in the employ of the pope. He lived to the great age of eighty-nine, but was never married. So devoted was he to the arts that as he grew older he became unsocial and lonely.

The most famous of his works in sculpture are his statues of Moses[1] and David. In architecture the world is indebted to him for the wonderful dome of St. Peter's cathedral at Rome, while the frescoing of the Sistine (sĭs′tēn) Chapel with its four hundred figures displays his skill as a painter. "The Last Judgment," which Michelangelo painted after he was sixty years old, is one of the most famous pictures in existence.

Another great product of the Italian Renaissance was Raphael (1483–1520), whose fame is as enduring as that of Michelangelo. Raphael is best known by the "Sistine Madonna" (Virgin and Child), which through its millions of reproductions is familiar to all.

Leonardo da Vinci (vēn′chē, 1452–1519) must be ranked with the two great artists mentioned above. He was even more versatile than Michelangelo. He was not only an artist of the first rank; he was also a sculptor, an architect, an engineer, a musician, a scientist, and a philosopher. In every one of these professions he ranked among the greatest of his time. Some writers pro-

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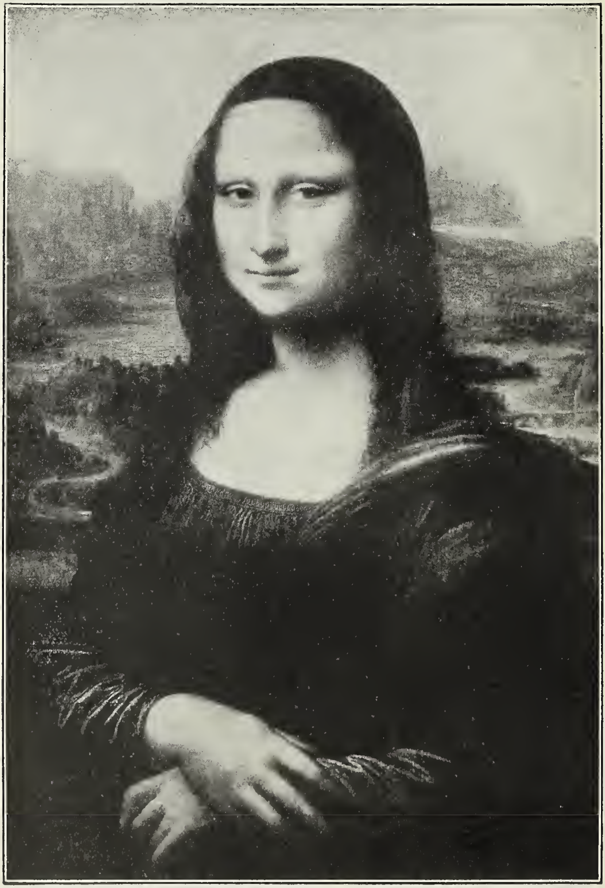
[1] The statue of Moses pictured on the opposite page was wrought in marble. It was ordered by Pope Julius II, for his tomb in Rome. Moses is supposed to have just come down from Mt. Sinai, to find the Israelites worshiping the golden calf. His right hand clasps the tables of the law, and he sits, the incarnation of majestic indignation and menace.

Statue of Moses, by Michelangelo



Mona Lisa, by Leonardo da Vinci

nounce him the greatest man that ever lived. Da Vinci's best-known painting is "Mona Lisa" (mō'nä lē'zä), now in Paris.[1] Art critics pronounce this the finest portrait ever painted.

272. Great Cathedrals. — A cathedral is the chief church of a bishop's diocese, and is usually large and of beautiful architectural finish. The Middle Ages produced many stone castles (sec. 215), the fortresses and homes of the nobility. But the cathedral was a place of public worship, and its architectural beauty far surpassed that of a castle. In many of the cathedrals the lofty spires and the wonderful vistas of arches and pillars astound the beholder with their beauty and grandeur.

Whatever may be said of the backwardness of the Middle Ages in most respects, in this one regard, architecture, that period equaled any other period in the world's history. One reason is that the art of producing fine buildings was especially encouraged by the church.

In many cities in Europe are found great cathedrals. Nearly all of them were erected, or at least begun, in the Middle Ages. Some of them were hundreds of years in building. A few of the cities having grand cathedrals are Venice (page 292) and Milan in Italy, Ulm and Cologne in Germany, Rheims (pages 287–288) and Rouen (rwäɴ) in France, Canterbury (page 386), Lincoln, and York in England.

273. Invention of Printing. — Of all the products of the Renaissance the invention of printing stands among the most useful. As late as the middle of the fifteenth century books were made by hand. A long and tedious process it was to write out a book with a pen. Newspapers and magazines did not exist, and the common people never learned to read.

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[1] In Mona Lisa, whose portrait is shown on the opposite page, the artist found a sitter whose face and smile possessed to a singular degree the haunting enigmatic charm in which he delighted. He is said to have worked at her portrait for four years, causing music to be played during the sittings, that the rapt expression might not fade from her face. The picture was bought by King Francis I of France. It was stolen from the Louvre in 1911, but was found in Florence and restored to the Louvre in 1914.

The invention of printing from movable type about 1450 is ascribed to John Gutenberg (gōō′ten-bĕrk), of Mainz (mīnts), Germany. Within half a century Europe could boast more than a thousand printing presses. Books were printed in many languages, libraries were established in many towns. Learning was no longer confined to a favored few. Thousands of people learned to read and a great step had been taken toward the general education of the masses.

VI. Summary of the Middle Ages

274. We have now come to the end of the period, covering a thousand years of the world's life, often called the Middle Ages. A backward glance will remind us of the panorama of the nations in their birth-struggle.

We see first the tottering, crumbling Roman Empire, which in the days of its glory had governed the world. On its ruins are founded the nations of Europe as we know them to-day. The innumerable Teutonic tribes of the north, which Cæsar had forced back to their native haunts, now pour in torrential volumes over the Alps, the Apennines, and the Pyrenees. The Vandals find a lodgment in North Africa and the Visigoths in Spain. The Lombards occupy northern Italy, and the Franks make a permanent home for themselves in Gaul.

Then begins a long period of darkness, with a commingling of races and languages and customs, a period of turmoil and disorder and ignorance, but a period of longing of a virile people for light and opportunity.

The youthful nations beat back the murderous Huns, dealing them a finishing blow on the plains of Chalons. But later from the East comes a still more menacing foe. A new religion, antagonistic to Christianity, comes out of Arabia with its motto to make converts by the edge of the sword. In its unrestrained fanaticism it overwhelms Mesopotamia and Persia; it subdues the Holy Land that had given to the world the Bible and the religion of Jesus; it sweeps westward and embraces all North African lands, until the crescent extends from the Euphrates Valley to the Strait of Gibraltar. Spain falls beneath the tread of the Moslem hordes, and the fate of Christian Europe trembles in the balance. But at the battle of Tours the invaders recoil under the blows of Charles Martel and Europe is saved.

The centuries pass. Charlemagne builds a great empire and it crumbles away. Europe is divided into thousands of feudal manors and for hundreds of years the knight of chivalry overshadows the king as well as the common man. But at length a little gunpowder reduces men to the same level on the field of battle, while the invention of printing serves to equalize them in other walks of life. A new light has dawned, a new spirit takes hold of the European mind. Italy takes the lead in the great awakening which we call the Renaissance; she becomes the teacher of Europe; she does for the other nations what Greece had done for her fifteen hundred years before.

At length feudalism and knighthood fall before the rising kingdoms; at the end of the Middle Ages the absolute monarch holds the center of the stage in the great drama; and so he will for three hundred years; but in time he too must give place to a mightier power, the power of the people, as we shall see in the following chapters.

Questions and Topics. — I. What is the reason for comparing primitive peoples to children? Why can a primitive people learn a language or a religion easier than science? What two facts made a high grade of civilization in Europe certain? Which are the Romance languages, and why so called? the Teutonic languages? the Slavic languages? Out of what did the English language develop? Why do we say that an unwritten language changes more rapidly than one that is written? Who were the troubadours? Tell the story of Siegfried; of King Arthur. Tell something of the writings of Chaucer; of Dante.

II. State briefly the condition of the schools and of education during the Middle Ages. What is a university, and how does it differ from a college? How does a college differ from an academy? from a high school? Tell how the great universities of Europe were founded, and name the important ones.

III. What was the condition of the study of science in the Middle Ages? How does science differ from art? What persons were permitted to practice medicine during this period? How did the practice of medicine of the period differ from the practice of medicine today? How was it affected by the crusades? Write a brief theme on Roger Bacon and his contributions to science (see encyclopedia).

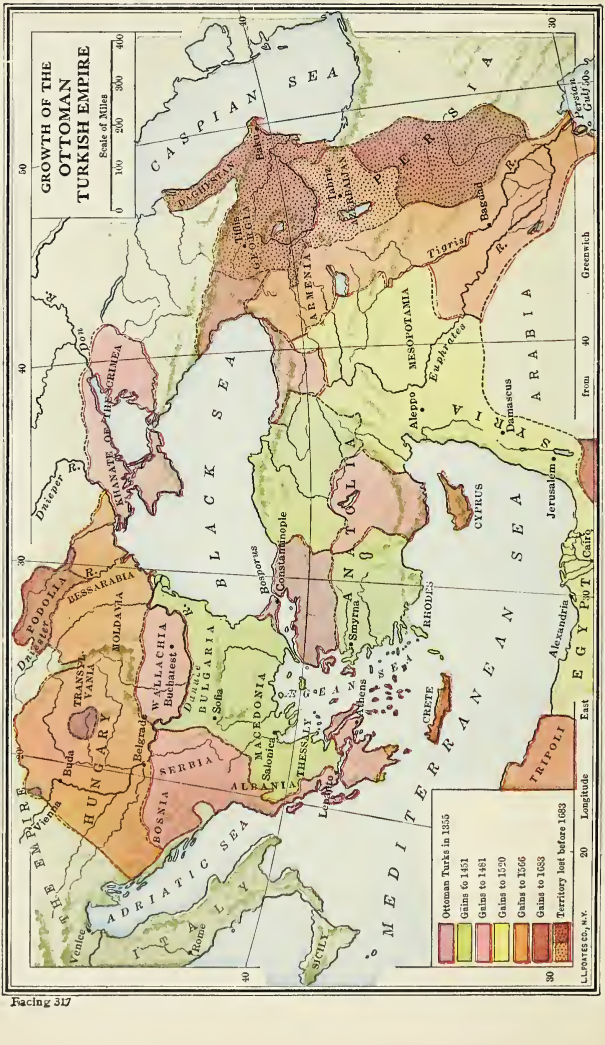
IV. Can you explain why contentment is worse than ignorance? Who was Marco Polo and what did his writings do for Europe? Name some of the achievements of the great discoverers.

V. What was the Renaissance and what did it do for Europe? What can you tell of the life of Petrarch? of Erasmus? of Colet? In what ways can we enjoy nature? Discuss the work of Michelangelo. With what Greek sculptor is he compared, and why? What can you tell of Raphael? of Leonardo da Vinci? Write an essay on cathedrals. What result did the invention of printing have on education and progress? Explain how a book was produced before Gutenberg's invention. Compare this with the present method. What is meant by the "cylinder press"? When and by whom was it invented? Have you seen a modern printing press work?

VI. Give a brief summary of the Middle Ages. Do you see any marks of progress between the beginning of the age and the end?

Events and Dates. — Birth of Dante, 1265; of Chaucer, 1340. Founding of the universities of Oxford and Paris, about 1200. Petrarch, 1304–1374. Michelangelo, 1475–1564. Raphael, 1483–1520. Da Vinci, 1452–1519. Invention of printing, about 1450.

For Further Reading. — Bateson, *Medieval England* (Story of the Nations series). Baniard, *Companion to English History* (essays by various writers). Ingram, *History of Slavery and Serfdom.* Henderson, *History of Germany in the Middle Ages.* Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages.* Ogg's *Source Book of Medieval History.* Robinson's *Readings in European History*, I, ch. XVIII.


GROWTH OF THE OTTOMAN TURKISH EMPIRE
Scale of Miles
0
100
200
300
400
Ottoman Turks in 1355
Gains to 1451
Gains to 1481
Gains to 1520
Gains to 1566
Gains to 1683
Territory lost before 1683
Longitude
East
from
Greenwich
20
30
40
50
L.L.POATES CO., N.Y.
CASPIAN SEA
BLACK SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
ÆGEAN SEA
PERSIA
ARABIA
SYRIA
EGYPT
TRIPOLI
ITALY
SICILY
THE EMPIRE
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
WALLACHIA
MOLDAVIA
BESSARABIA
PODOLIA
KHANATE OF THE CRIMEA
DAGHESTAN
GEORGIA
AZERBAIJAN
ARMENIA
MESOPOTAMIA
ANATOLIA
BULGARIA
MACEDONIA
THESSALY
SERBIA
BOSNIA
ALBANIA
CRETE
CYPRUS
RHODES
Venice
Rome
Vienna
Buda
Belgrade
Bucharest
Sofia
Salonica
Lepanto
Athens
Smyrna
Constantinople
Bosporus
Alexandria
Cairo
Jerusalem
Damascus
Aleppo
Bagdad
Tabriz
Tiflis
Baku
Persian Gulf
Danube
Dniester
Dnieper R.
Don
R.
Euphrates
Tigris

Facing 317

THE PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION

CHAPTER XXIII

THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION IN GERMANY

I. European Conditions

275. **Fall of Constantinople.** — The great city on the Bosporus, founded by Constantine the Great and called by his name (sec. 186), became the capital of the eastern section of the Roman Empire; and when Rome fell into the hands of the invaders from the north, Constantinople continued to be the capital of the Eastern Empire, or Byzantine Empire, for a thousand years longer. When the Mohammedan hordes overran and conquered North Africa and Spain (sec. 204), they also attacked Constantinople, but they were beaten back and the city was saved.

Six hundred years later a fierce people called Turks came from central Asia, driven by a still fiercer people called Mongols. The Turks, who had been converted to Mohammedanism, soon began to encroach on southeastern Europe. They conquered Thessaly, Macedonia, and Bulgaria. Half a century later they tightened their coils about the city of the Bosporus. A heroic defense of forty days against a besieging army of 200,000 was fruitless, and Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks in 1453.

For a hundred years longer the Turks continued their conquests in Europe, and they became a terror to Christendom. But in 1529 they suffered a defeat at Vienna, and in 1571 in the naval battle of Lepan'to their fleet was destroyed. After the seventeenth century Turkish power in Europe gradually declined.[1]

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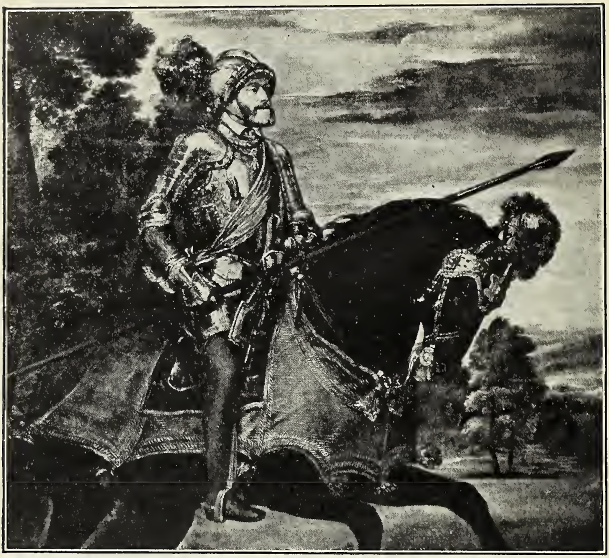
[1] In 1683 a large Turkish army again besieged Vienna; it was driven off by a Polish army under King John Sobieski (so-byĕs'ke) of Poland, who thus made himself for a time the hero of Christendom.



Emperor Charles V

From a painting by Titian, in Madrid.

276. The Empire. — The great empire founded by Charlemagne (sec. 208) comprised nearly all of central and western Europe, but after the death of this monarch it fell to pieces and in time the emperor came to be little more than the king of Germany. At the beginning of the modern period Germany and the Empire were one and the same thing. But Germany was divided into three hundred little states, independent, except that they were loosely bound together by the Empire (map following page 334).

The electors (sec. 249) usually chose as emperor a man who was already a powerful ruler in Europe; but as head of the Empire he was without an army, without a navy, and without an income. The title was an honorary title and the German states were almost self-governing.

277. Emperor Charles V. — In the city of Ghent was born in 1500 a prince of the house of Hapsburg who was destined to become, before he reached his twentieth year, the most powerful ruler of his time. For hundreds of years the Hapsburg family had been one of the most prominent in Europe, and recently its fortunes had been greatly enhanced by several brilliant marriages. The head of the Hapsburg house, Maximil'ian of Austria, who was also emperor, married Princess Mary of Burgundy, heiress to the throne of the Netherlands. Their son Philip married Joan, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. The prince born in Ghent in 1500 was the son of Philip and Joan; he was named Charles.

While Charles was yet a child his father died and thus he inherited the Netherlands, or what is now called Holland and Belgium. When he was sixteen years old his grandfather Ferdinand died and he inherited the kingdom of Spain. When Charles was nineteen his grandfather Maximilian died and he fell heir to Austria. Before the end of the same year he was elected emperor.

Note the vast possessions of this youthful sovereign. In addition to Spain and the Netherlands, Austria and the German Empire, he was master of Naples and Sicily (which he inherited from Ferdinand of Spain) and, through the discoveries of Columbus, of the boundless territories of the New World. The possessions of Charles V were far more extensive than those of any other sovereign in the world.

II. BEGINNINGS OF THE REFORMATION

278. Causes. — The religious revolution of the sixteenth century known as the Reformation was a movement of tremendous importance. It brought disruption to the ancient church and led nearly half of European Christendom into opposition to papal supremacy.

One cause of the Reformation was the existence of scandalous abuses in the government and discipline of the church. Devout Catholics deplored the conditions and hoped for reform; but most of them believed that the reform should come from within and that the church should not be disrupted.

Another cause was the Renaissance, that revival of learning which led some men to question the generally accepted beliefs of the Middle Ages. Still another was the fact that kings and rulers were jealous of the temporal powers of the pope. There had been age-long disputes about the balance of power between popes and rulers — whether the church and church officers should or should not come under civil law, and whether the church or the state should have control of wills and marriages and church property. Many rulers felt that they were not independent, and when the break came some of them readily joined the new movement.

279. The Great Schism. — A schism (sĭz'm) is a split in the church. It may or may not involve differences in doctrine. The Greek Schism was the separation of the eastern or Greek Catholic Church from the Roman Catholic early in the Middle Ages — a separation that continues to this day.

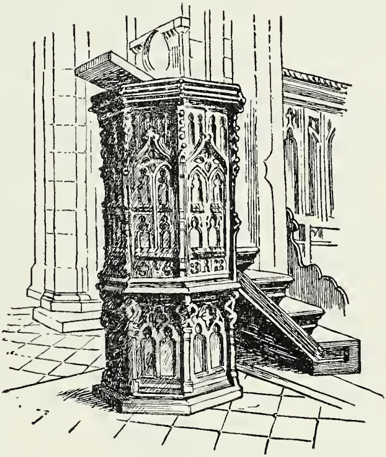
The Great Schism, on the other hand, was a temporary split in the government of the western or Roman Catholic Church, caused by rival claims to the papal throne. It began in 1378 and continued about forty years.

The Babylonian Captivity of the papacy (sec. 253) ended in 1377 when the pope and most of the cardinals removed from Avignon to Rome. The next year the pope died. The college of cardinals thereupon met at Rome and elected Urban VI as pope. But most of the cardinals soon repented of their choice; they met again, declared Urban deposed, and named as pope a man who took the name of Clement VII. Urban refused to give up and thus there were two claimants to the throne of Saint Peter, each calling himself pope. Urban made his headquarters at Rome, and Clement made his at Avignon in southern France.

On the death of each pope a successor was elected by his faction of the cardinals, and so the schism continued.

In 1409 a council, called to meet at Pisa (pē′sä) to heal the schism, declared both popes deposed and secured the election of a third. The rival pontiffs refused to yield, and there were now three claimants instead of two. The schism was finally healed and the church reunited at the Council of Constance, 1414-1418; all three claimants were set aside and a new pope elected.

The Great Schism was one of the most important causes of the Reformation. A leading Catholic writer declares that nothing did so much as this schism to prepare the way for the defection from the papacy in the sixteenth century. It led great numbers of people, who had never doubted before, to doubt the authority of the pope.



Wyclif's Pulpit

Now in the parish church of which he was rector, at Lutterworth, England.

280. Wyclif. — John Wyc′lif, born in the northern part of England (1320), became a graduate and then a professor of Oxford University. He was also a parish priest and a man of public affairs. On one occasion he was sent by the king to the continent to arrange terms of peace with France. On the advice of Wyclif, Parliament discontinued paying the tribute to the church that had been pledged by King John (sec. 236), though it had been paid annually for more than a hundred years.

Wyclif became a notable preacher and writer. Early in his career he began to doubt some of the Catholic doctrines. Later he attacked many of the practices of the church as well as the doctrine of papal supremacy. In 1377 Wyclif was summoned to London to stand trial for heresy. But as the powerful Duke of Lan′caster protected him, he escaped being condemned. The next year the Great Schism began. This proved a protecting shield to the English reformer, since the rival popes were so absorbed in their contest with each other that they had no time to give to him. Moreover, the schism furnished Wyclif a powerful argument against the papacy. He boldly declared that the popes were not the vicars of Christ and that the church would be better off without any pope at all.

John Wyclif had many thousands of followers, who came to be called Lollards.[1] From Oxford he sent out preachers to proclaim his doctrines. But the crowning work of his life was an English translation of the Bible made under his supervision, or at least under his influence. This English Bible, probably translated in part by himself, was widely read and it helped to fix the form of English prose; for most English literature up to that time was poetry. Wyclif died in 1384. He was a man of blameless life and of unwearied energy. He has been called the "Morning Star of the Reformation."

281. **John Hus.** — The most conspicuous follower of Wyclif was John Hus of Bohemia. The two men never met. Hus was a schoolboy of fifteen at the time of Wyclif's death. Wyclif's writings had been translated and spread over the Continent, and they made a powerful impression on the youthful mind of Hus.

After graduating at the University of Prague, Hus became a teacher and a preacher. He declared that no man on earth has the power to forgive sins,[2] that remission of sins comes through repentance alone, and he urged the people to search the Scriptures for the words of eternal life.

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[1] An old word meaning mumblers, that is, men who mumbled prayers or psalms.

[2] In the Catholic sacrament of Penance "forgiveness of sins committed after baptism is granted through the priest's absolution to those who with true sorrow confess their sins and promise to satisfy for the same."

After Hus had preached for some years and had won great numbers of his fellow countrymen to his way of thinking, he was called to answer a charge of heresy. The great church council at Constance (sec. 279) summoned Hus to its presence. He went and was condemned for teaching heresy. Repeatedly he was offered his freedom if he would recant what he had taught, but he refused and was burned at the stake (July, 1415).

In consequence of Hus's death the Bohemians rose in rebellion, and a war of many years, known as the Hussite War, followed, finally ending in a compromise.

III. MARTIN LUTHER (1483–1546)

282. Boyhood and Early Life. — Among the reformers of the sixteenth century the greatest was Martin Luther.

Born at the little town of Eisleben (īs′lā-ben), at the foot of the Harz (harts) Mountains in Saxony, of poor parents, he spent his childhood among the humblest surroundings. In 1501 he entered the university at Erfurt (ĕr′fo͝ort), and took his master's degree four years later. He surpassed all his fellow students in composition and eloquence. His father had intended him to be a lawyer, but he was very religious, even from childhood, and he unexpectedly entered an Augustinian convent and became a friar (1505). Two years later he was ordained a priest. While in the convent Luther was greatly distressed about his soul's salvation. He engaged diligently in the regular exercises of the convent and he studied the Bible until he knew large portions of it by heart. He also read the works of Saint Augustine. At last he came to the belief that salvation comes not of good works, but by grace through faith.

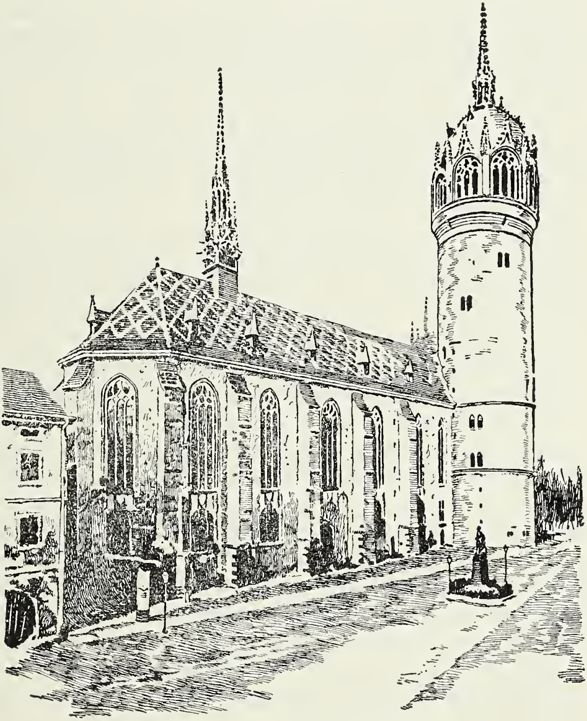
This doctrine Luther began to preach, and a few years later, when called to a professorship in the newly founded University of Wittenberg (vĭt′en-bĕrκ), in Saxony, he taught the same thing. As a teacher and preacher Luther was very popular; hundreds of students came to Wittenberg, drawn by his eloquence.

283. Luther against Tetzel. — In 1517, John Tetzel traveled through Germany preaching indulgences, and from this fact the occasion arose which led Luther, later on, to break with the church. An indulgence is a remission of penalties, generally granted by the pope, through which a repentant sinner, having been previously absolved from his sins in the sacrament of Penance and thus freed from the eternal punishment due to them, may be released from part or all of the temporal punishment which remains to be suffered even after his sins have been forgiven. When an indulgence was obtained, its benefits could be applied to the dead suffering in purgatory, as well as to the person who had gained it. The conditions on which an indulgence was granted were prayers, fastings, pilgrimages, or works of charity or mercy, such as contributions for building hospitals and churches. On this occasion Tetzel was authorized to grant indulgences to those who contributed to the fund for rebuilding the great church of St. Peter at Rome.

But Tetzel in his zeal made claims for the indulgences beyond the authoritative teaching of the church. The devout faithful were scandalized. Luther was greatly aroused at the claims Tetzel made; he wrote and taught and preached against them. He embodied his opinions in a series of ninety-five theses, or propositions for debate, which he nailed to the door of the Castle Church at Wittenberg (October 31, 1517). There were no newspapers or magazines in the Middle Ages, and it was customary to publish one's opinions in this way.

Luther was astonished at the sensation created by his theses. In two weeks they had spread over all Germany and they touched a responsive chord with the people. Luther had yet no thought of leaving the church; he felt that he was working for its honor and not against it. No one seemed to foresee that a great religious revolution was at hand. Even the pope, Leo X, learning of the commotion in Germany, pronounced it a "squabble of the monks" and referred to "Brother Martin" as "a wonderful genius."

284. **Address to the Christian Nobility; Burning of the Papal Bull.** — Events moved rapidly. Luther kept on preaching and writing. Multitudes of students flocked to Wittenberg to



Castle Church at Wittenberg

The wooden doors of Luther's time were burned in the eighteenth century. They were replaced in 1858 by metal doors inscribed with the original Latin text of Luther's ninety-five theses. Within the church are the tombs of Luther, Melanchthon, and Frederick the Wise.

hear him. The central thought of his teaching was that salvation comes through repentance and faith alone, and that indulgences are of no avail.

When the authorities realized that such doctrine would subvert the teaching of the church, it was determined that Luther must be refuted and silenced. Dr. John Eck, one of the ablest scholars in Europe, was chosen to refute the teachings of the Saxon friar. Eck and Luther met at Leipzig (līp′sik), and for many days the two debated publicly the doctrines of the church. Here Luther took the advanced ground that popes and general councils might err, that in fact they had often erred, and that the only true and safe guide for the conscience of the Christian was the Holy Scriptures.

Soon after this disputation with Dr. Eck, Luther published the most stirring book that he ever wrote — *An Address to the Christian Nobility of the German Nation.* This book was a clarion call. It awakened the nation as a bugle awakens a sleeping army. In it the writer maintained, among other points:

(1) That the Bible is the only foundation of Christian truth.

(2) That the pope is not rightfully the head of the church.

(3) That all Christian believers are priests.

(4) That the monasteries ought to be abolished, nor should the vows of monks and nuns be considered binding.[1]

After such a radical publication Luther could have no hope of reconciliation. It is clear that he was fully resolved to break finally with the church of the Middle Ages, and to found a new organization based on the principles he had set forth. The situation was of grave and serious responsibility.

No Catholic, however devout, could deny that the abuses of the church were serious and of long standing. But could it not be reformed from within? Throughout the ages the church had stood like a rock when kingdoms and empires had crumbled and fallen. It is true that the abuses and corruptions were many, as Catholic writers freely admit, but it is also true that millions of people for generations had regarded the church as a nourishing mother, from the cradle to the grave. Whatever its abuses, it had accomplished great good also. Was this great organization now to be torn asunder and disrupted at the call of the Saxon reformer?

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[1] Luther himself later married a nun who had abandoned her convent.

In September, 1520, Pope Leo issued his bull or decree of excommunication against Luther, declaring him outside the pale of the church. Three months later Luther showed a defiance and contempt of the papal bull by burning a copy of it in the open square of Wittenberg.

285. Frederick the Wise; the Diet of Worms (1521). — Luther could not have succeeded in doing what he did but for the protection of a powerful friend — Frederick the Wise, Elector of Saxony, a ruler known far and near for his ability and integrity. In an age of venality, when even the crown of the Empire was sold to the highest bidder, the crown was offered to Frederick without a bribe, but he refused it.[1]

The Protestant world of to-day recognizes that on three different occasions the continuance of the Reformation depended on the decision of Frederick the Wise. In 1518 Luther was summoned to Rome to stand trial for heresy; but Frederick refused to let him go and demanded that the trial take place on German soil. Again, when the pope excommunicated Luther, it was Frederick's duty as a true son of the church to execute the decree and deny Luther the protection of the laws, but again he refused.

Now came the Diet of Worms (vōrms), which proved to be the supreme crisis of the Reformation. Worms was a little city on the banks of the river Rhine, many days journey from Saxony. The diet or congress which met there in the spring of 1521 was a great gathering. It was called by the emperor, Charles V, who attended in person, with many great dignitaries of church and state.

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[1] The crown cost Charles V 850,000 florins (about $400,000), none of which was accepted by Frederick, who was one of the electors. He even forbade his servants to accept gifts.

Luther was summoned to present himself at this diet to answer for his alleged teaching contrary to the doctrines of the church; he was promised a safe-conduct for his return. As he proceeded on the way throngs of people gathered to get a glimpse of the Saxon preacher who had set all Europe ablaze.

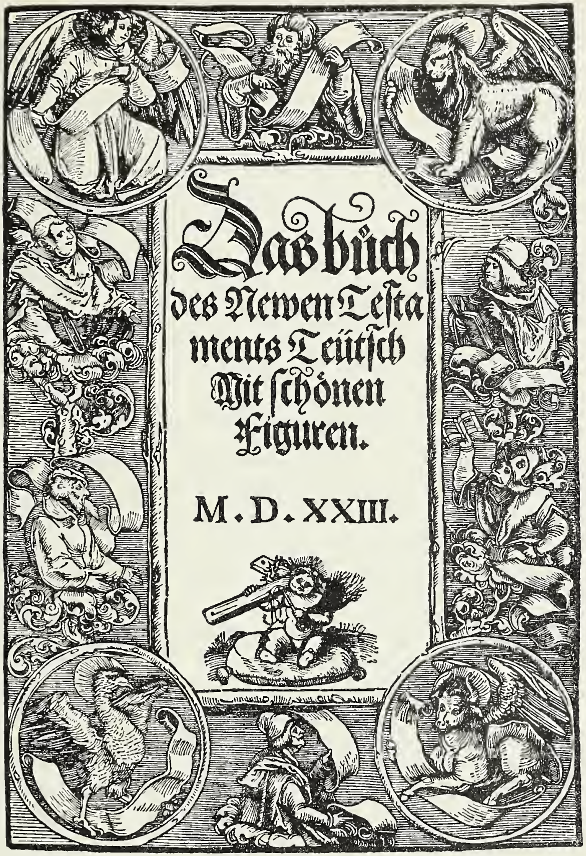
The diet met in the castle and here in the midst of his dignitaries sat the great emperor whose dominions were more extensive than those of Charlemagne. Luther appeared before this august body and was asked to retract what he had written contrary to the teachings of the church. In an impressive speech he declared that it was dangerous for a man to violate his own conscience, and that he could not and would not retract unless convinced from the Holy Scriptures, or by sound reasoning.

A few days later Luther departed for his home. The diet pronounced him a heretic, and the ban of the Empire was issued against him. By this ban he was denounced as an arch-heretic, a devil in the dress of a monk, was cast outside the protection of the law, and all persons were forbidden to furnish him food or shelter. Magistrates were directed to seize him wherever he could be found. And one of them did seize him. It was Frederick the Wise of Saxony.

286. Luther at the Wartburg. — As Luther was proceeding homeward a band of horsemen captured him (by previous arrangement) and carried him to the Wartburg (vart′bŏŏrᴋ), one of Frederick's castles, near the Thurin′gian Forest. The object was to save the reformer from the hands of his enemies. Thus for the third time did Frederick the Wise become the promoter of the Reformation by preserving the life of its leader.

For many months Luther remained at the Wartburg, his friends not knowing what had become of him. He spent his time translating the Bible into the German language. And it is a remarkable fact that this translation remains the standard in most of Germany to this day.

Luther suddenly returned to Wittenberg in the spring of 1522 to aid in quelling disorders among the people. A few years later



Das bůch
des Newen Teſta
ments Teütſch
Mit ſchönen
Figuren.

M.D.XXIII.

Title Page of Luther's New Testament

This book was translated from the Latin and published in 1523. The medallions in the corners are symbols of the four Evangelists. These symbols are taken from the book of Ezekiel and the book of Revelation. The winged man in the upper left-hand corner stands for Saint Matthew, the winged lion in the upper right for Saint Mark, the eagle in the lower left for Saint John, and the winged bull for Saint Luke.

there was a great uprising of the peasants in many parts of Germany, and the princes found it necessary to put them down with the sword. The poor peasants were sadly misled by radicals, some of whom pretended to be prophets. Luther saw that all his work was in danger of being destroyed, for he well knew that radicalism would kill any reform movement. He therefore sided with the princes and urged them to restore order at any cost.

The reform in the church service by Luther and his followers was not radical, but moderate. Preaching and congregational singing were given a prominent place and the Latin mass was replaced by a simple service in the language of the people.

IV. CHARLES V AND THE REFORMATION

287. Spread of the Reform Movement; Charles V. — As mentioned before (sec. 277), Charles V was the most powerful prince of his time, or of any time since the days of Charlemagne. He was elected emperor two years after Luther had posted his propositions on the church door at Wittenberg, and it was two years after his election when he called together the famous diet at the city of Worms (1521). By this time the Lutheran movement had spread over a great part of north Germany and had gained some foothold in the south.

The emperor was a true Catholic, devoted to the church, but for two reasons he was not energetic at the outset in trying to suppress the movement started by Luther. First, he was not very friendly to the pope at this time, and no doubt believed that the latter might be taught a good lesson by the revolt. Second, several of the great German princes, like Frederick the Wise, were friendly to the reformer, and Charles had to deal gently in any matter pertaining to their territories.

In later years, when the emperor was convinced that the break in the church was very serious and was becoming more extensive every year, even spreading to other countries, he determined to put an end to it if he could. But for a score of years he was thwarted by some outside agent — French, Turk, or African — every time he made the attempt.

288. The "Protestants"; the Augsburg Confession. — First, there was a long war between Emperor Charles and Francis I, king of France, which ended in 1529 with a victory for Charles. A diet was then held at Spires and a decree was issued there forbidding the further spread of Luther's teachings. As Lutheran princes entered a protest against this decree (1529), they were called Protestants, and the name was later given to all western Christians who rejected the pope's authority.

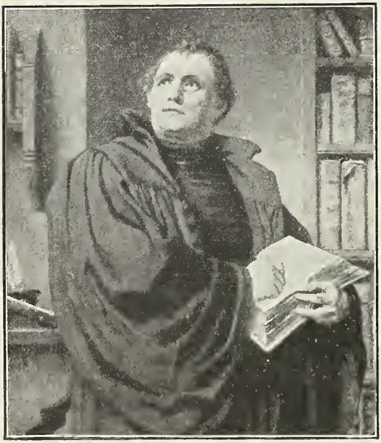
Again, however, Charles was thwarted in his effort to crush the Protestants. Within the same year the Turks with a great army appeared under the walls of Vienna (sec. 275). Charles was obliged to ask his Protestant subjects to aid the Catholics in driving out the Turks, and they did so. Thus again was the religious war between Catholics and Protestants deferred.

The next year, 1530, an important diet was held at Augsburg. At this diet the Protestants presented a statement of their beliefs, a confession of faith which came to be known as the Augsburg Confession. This was the first great Protestant creed, and it is still the distinctive creed of all the Lutheran churches throughout the world, numbering more than fifty million souls. The writing of the confession was the work of Philip Melanch'thon, a co-worker of Luther, known over Europe for his scholarship.

289. The First Religious War. — Soon after the Diet of Augsburg Charles made ready to strike Protestantism in Germany, but at this moment the Mohammedans in North Africa claimed his attention. He defeated them, but it required several years, at the end of which another war with France broke out. In fact, the emperor was deterred in one way and another from drawing the sword on Protestant Germany until 1547. The Reformation had then been progressing for thirty years. Protestantism was now well established and had millions of adherents when the religious wars at last began.

The religious war that broke out in 1547 was entangled with a political contest in Saxony. At first Charles was quite successful; he was led to believe that his victory was complete and final. But several years later the whole country blazed up again and hostilities were resumed. This time Charles was defeated and almost taken captive.

The warring parties at length agreed to a truce, and the religious peace of Augsburg was signed in 1555. By this treaty the princes of Germany were each left to choose for his people the Catholic or Lutheran faith as he preferred. This agreement brought peace to Germany for more than sixty years — until the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War in the following century.



Martin Luther
From a modern painting.

Weary of the numerous wars and the heavy burden of his many crowns, Charles V determined to retire and spend the evening of his days in rest and quiet. He resigned all his crowns in 1555 and 1556 and retired to a monastery in Spain, where two years later he passed away.[1]

290. Character of Luther. — Luther did not live to witness the outbreak of the first religious war. He died peacefully in 1546 at Eisleben, the town in which he was born.

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[1] His son Philip II inherited most of his dominions; but his brother Ferdinand I, the ruler of Austria, Bohemia, and Hungary, was elected emperor.

Martin Luther was a robust, rugged, powerful personality, a man of heroic mold. He fully realized the gravity of his responsibility. However great the changes he advocated, he was not by nature an extremist. It was his habit to reach conclusions only after mature deliberation.

Though born in the lower classes, Luther was an aristocrat at heart rather than a democrat, and his mind was medieval rather than modern. The modern idea of individual liberty of conscience he never fully grasped, but the broad principles on which modern universal education is built are found in his writings.

Luther was often coarse in his language and manners, but the sincerity of his devotion to reform was beyond question. Former efforts to bring about reform by devout Catholics had failed. Luther was convinced that reform within the church was impossible, that no way was left but to disrupt it, and he was more devoted to reform than to a preservation of the organization of the Middle Ages. No one can deny that his career had a profound effect on the history of the world.

Questions and Topics. — I. Describe the coming of the Turks to Europe and the fall of Constantinople. Contrast the status of the Turks in Europe four hundred years ago and at present. What can you tell of Germany and the Empire? of Charles V? Compare the government of the Empire under Charles V with the United States government.

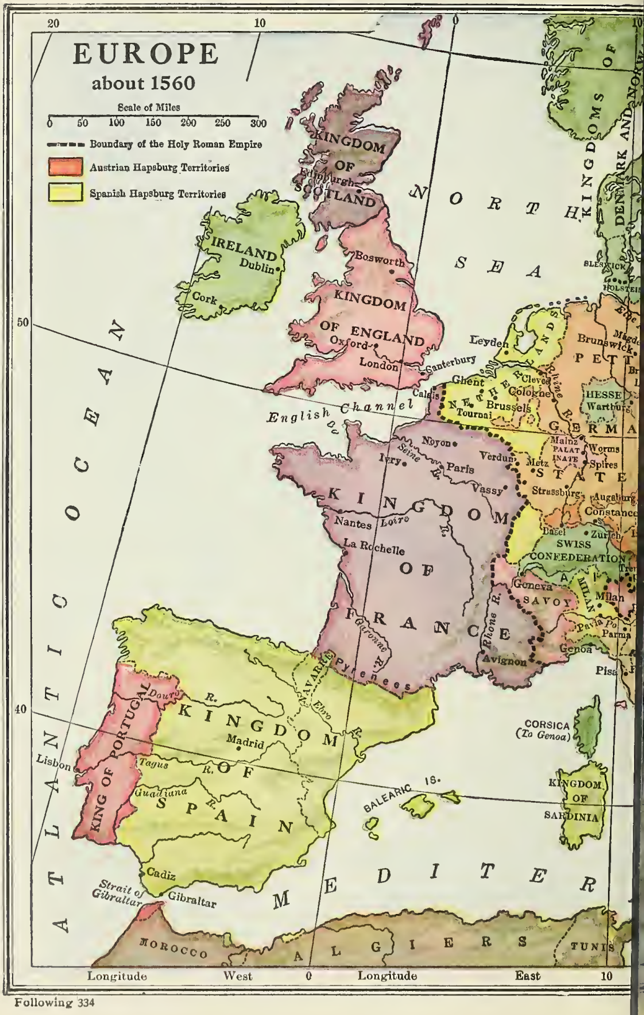
II. Name two or three of the causes that brought about the Reformation. Who were the Lollards? What did John Wyclif do for English prose? Give a brief account of John Hus and his teachings

III. Tell what you know of Martin Luther as a boy, as a friar, as a university professor. What occasioned the posting of the ninety-five propositions on the church door? What were Luther's chief writings, and what doctrines did he set forth in them? Who was Frederick the Wise? Describe the Diet of Worms.

IV. In what ways were the efforts of Charles V to make war on Protestantism frustrated? When and where was the word Protestant first applied to the reformers? What was the result of the first religious war? Give an estimate of Luther's character.

Events and Dates. — Fall of Constantinople, 1453. Birth of Luther, 1483. Reformation begins, 1517. Charles V becomes emperor, 1519. Diet of Worms, 1521. Reformers first called Protestants, 1529. Peace of Augsburg, 1555.

For Further Reading. — Seebohm, *Era of the Protestant Revolution.* Köstlin, *Life of Luther.* Lindsay, *A History of the Reformation*, 2 vols. This is one of the most thorough works on the subject in English. Vol. II treats of the Reformation in Switzerland, France, the Netherlands, Scotland, and England. Fisher, *The Reformation.* Jacobs, *Martin Luther.* Preserved Smith, *Life and Letters of Martin Luther.* From a Catholic viewpoint the Reformation may be studied in *The Catholic Encyclopedia;* Spaulding, *History of the Protestant Reformation;* Janssen, *History of the German People;* and Lingard, *History of England.*


EUROPE
about 1560
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 150 200 250 300
Boundary of the Holy Roman Empire
Austrian Hapsburg Territories
Spanish Hapsburg Territories
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
Edinburgh
IRELAND
Dublin
Cork
Bosworth
KINGDOM OF ENGLAND
Oxford
London
Canterbury
NORTH SEA
KINGDOMS OF DENMARK AND NORWAY
SLESWICK
HOLSTEIN
Elbe
Magde
Brunswick
Leyden
NETHERLANDS
Ghent
Cleves
Cologne
Brussels
Tournai
Calais
Rhine R.
HESSE
Wartburg
GERMAN STATES
Mainz
PALATINATE
Worms
Spires
Metz
Verdun
Strassburg
Augsburg
Constance
Basel
Zurich
SWISS CONFEDERATION
English Channel
Noyon
Seine R.
Ivry
Paris
Vassy
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Nantes
Loire
La Rochelle
Garonne R.
Rhone R.
Avignon
Geneva
SAVOY
MILAN
Milan
Pavia
Po
Parma
Genoa
Pisa
Pyrenees
NAVARRE
Douro
R.
Ebro R.
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
Madrid
Tagus R.
Guadiana R.
KING OF PORTUGAL
Lisbon
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Strait of Gibraltar
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA (To Genoa)
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
MEDITER
MOROCCO
ALGIERS
TUNIS
ATLANTIC OCEAN
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Longitude West
Longitude East
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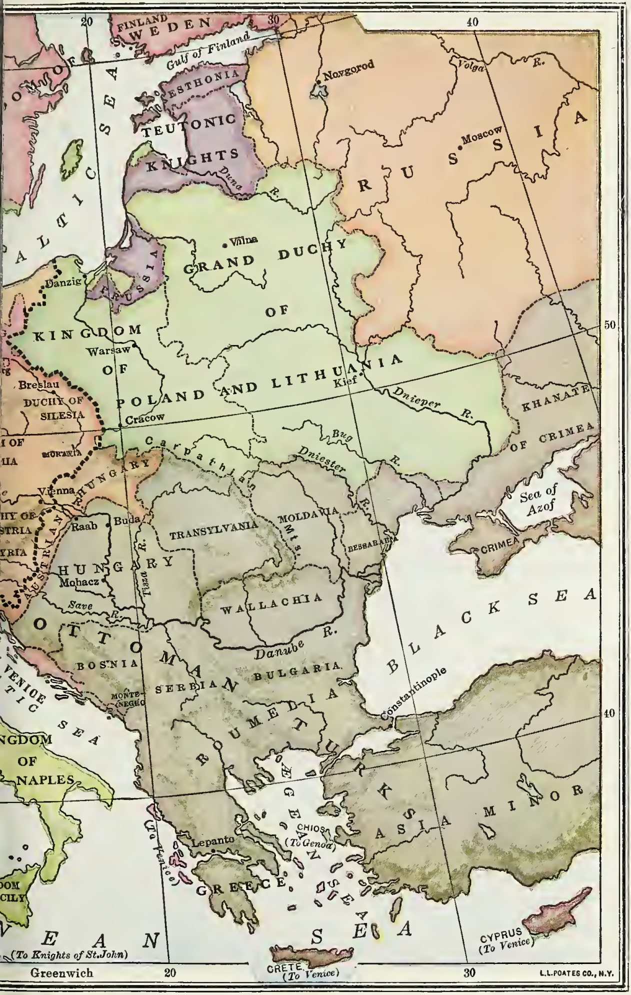20
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40
FINLAND
SWEDEN
Gulf of Finland
BALTIC SEA
ESTHONIA
Novgorod
Volga R.
TEUTONIC KNIGHTS
Duna R.
Moscow
RUSSIA
Vilna
GRAND DUCHY OF POLAND AND LITHUANIA
Danzig
PRUSSIA
KINGDOM OF POLAND
Warsaw
50
Kief
Dnieper R.
Breslau
DUCHY OF SILESIA
Cracow
KHANATE OF CRIMEA
MORAVIA
Bug R.
Dniester R.
Carpathian Mts.
HUNGARY
Vienna
Sea of Azof
Raab
Buda
MOLDAVIA
AUSTRIA
STYRIA
TRANSYLVANIA
BESSARABIA
CRIMEA
Tisza R.
HUNGARY
Mohacz
Save R.
WALLACHIA
BLACK SEA
Danube R.
OTTOMAN TURKS
BOSNIA
BULGARIA
VENICE
ADRIATIC SEA
SERBIA
MONTENEGRO
Constantinople
40
ROUMELIA
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
ÆGEAN SEA
ASIA MINOR
(To Venice)
CHIOS (To Genoa)
Lepanto
GREECE
KINGDOM OF SICILY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CYPRUS (To Venice)
(To Knights of St. John)
CRETE (To Venice)
Greenwich
20
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CHAPTER XXIV

THE REFORMATION IN OTHER LANDS; THE COUNTER REFORMATION

I. Switzerland

291. Ulrich Zwingli, the Swiss Reformer. — During the stirring years of the Reformation in Germany there was a similar movement going on in the little Alpine country on the south. There too people revolted against the church of the Middle Ages, and the doctrines they accepted were very like those of Luther in Germany.

The leader of the Swiss revolt was Ulrich Zwingli (o͞ol′rĭᴋ tsvĭng′lē), who declared that his ideas of reform were not borrowed from Luther, but were the result of his own thinking. He began his work of reform in Zurich (zo͞o′rik) in 1518, the year after Luther posted his ninety-five propositions on the church door at Wittenberg. He was more radical than the Saxon reformer. Luther believed that many of the usages of the church, not contrary to the Scriptures, should be retained; Zwingli would tear down the whole edifice and build a new structure on the ruins. Luther would retain the many beautiful statues and paintings in the churches, to be regarded merely as ornaments; Zwingli would cast out all such works of art and whitewash the church walls in order to remove any encouragement of the veneration of saints.

It was hoped that Luther and Zwingli might work together. To this end they met in 1529 and discussed their creeds and doctrines. In most respects they fully agreed, but not at all points, and they parted, like Paul and Barnabas, each going his own way. Thus began the divisions of Protestantism. Two years later Zwingli was killed in a battle between Swiss Catholics and Swiss Protestants; but his work did not die. By the treaty of peace each canton was left free to decide for itself in religious matters.

292. John Calvin. — Next to Luther the greatest of the reformers was John Calvin, a Frenchman, born in 1509. When the echoes of the Protestant movement in Germany were heard in France Calvin was a youthful student. He readily adopted the cause of the reformers, soon became a leader in the movement, and was forced by persecution to flee from his native land. For some years he sojourned in different cities and in the meantime published his great theological work, *The Institutes of the Christian Religion.*

In 1536 Calvin went to the city of Gene′va and there henceforth were his home and his work. He labored early and late; he lived in a tenement, fasted often, was thinly clad and always poor. His salary as pastor at Geneva was small. It included a little money, twelve measures of grain, and two tubs of wine.

For many years Calvin had practical control of the religious life and even of the government of Geneva. The rules he laid down for the daily observance of the people were extremely severe. Many harmless pleasures were forbidden. Extravagance in dress, dancing, and neglect of church attendance were severely dealt with. Unlike the other reformers, Calvin approved of putting heretics to death. But with all his faults he became a mighty power in the religious world.

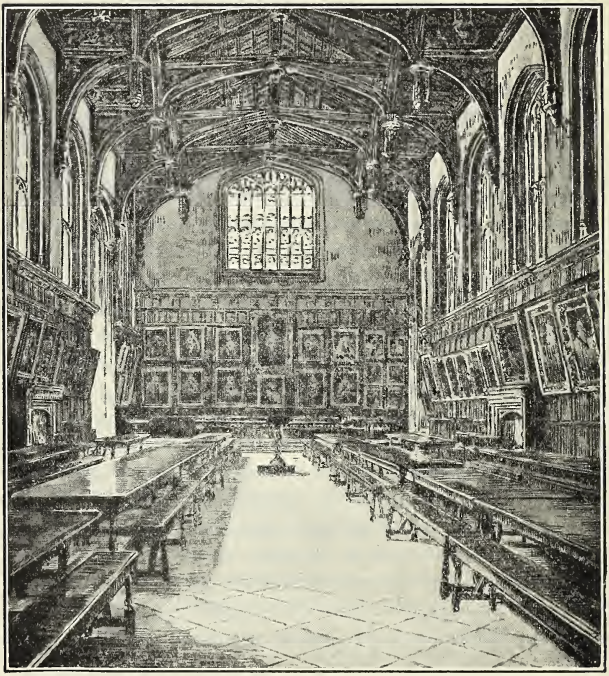
Though Luther was twenty-six years of age when Calvin was born, Calvin became famous while Luther still lived. The two reformers greatly respected each other, but they never met. They were wholly unlike in temperament and talents. Luther was purely a churchman with little organizing ability; Calvin was a statesman as well as a churchman, with fine powers of organization. Luther was eloquent and popular; Calvin was lank and sickly, without eloquence, coldly intellectual and philosophical. Both were possessed of unbounded energy, were utterly fearless, and profoundly devoted to duty as they saw it, and each to this day has many millions of followers in the Christian world.

II. England and Other Lands

293. Wars of the Roses and Henry Tudor. — For a hundred years after the victory of the Black Prince at Poitiers in 1356 (sec. 245) there is little in the history of England to interest the reader. At the end of that period came the Wars of the Roses, so called because a white rose was worn as a badge by one side and a red rose by the other. These wars continued for thirty years and ended in 1485 when Richard III fell fighting at the battle of Bosworth Field. It was a contest between two great baronial families fighting for the crown. They were known as the House of Lancaster and the House of York, both descended from Edward III, father of the Black Prince (sec. 245). At the close of the wars nearly all the ancient nobility of England had been swept away. When Richard III, the last of the Yorks, was slain at Bosworth, Henry Tudor, the Earl of Richmond, whose mother was a Lancaster, ascended the throne of England as Henry VII (1485). Then began the reign of the Tudors, which continued for more than a century. Henry VII was a strong ruler, and his reign of twenty-four years was a season of peace. He is best remembered in America because it was during his reign that John Cabot made his famous voyage of discovery to the North American continent.

294. Henry VIII and Cardinal Wolsey. — On the death of Henry VII in 1509, his son, a youth of eighteen years, ascended the English throne as Henry VIII. The new king was most promising. Hale, jovial, and kind-hearted, strong and athletic, with auburn hair and ruddy countenance, he was pronounced the handsomest prince in Europe. He loved sports and gaudy display, and the great fortune left him by his father was soon dissipated.

King Henry at first seemed favorable to the revival of learn-



HALL OF CHRISTCHURCH COLLEGE, OXFORD

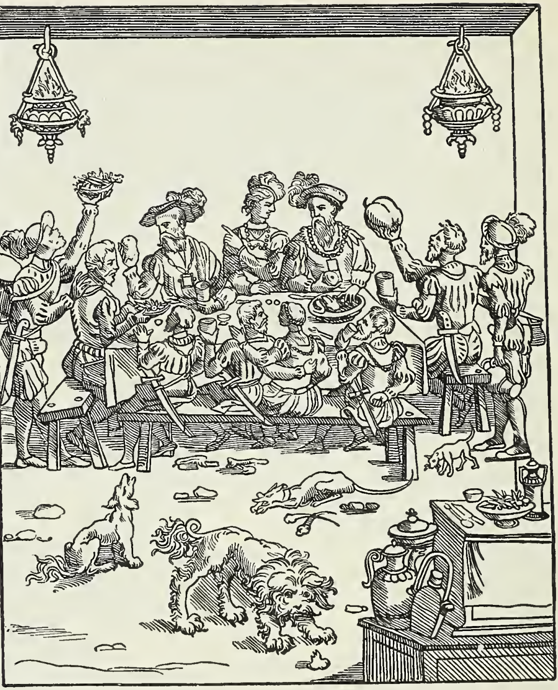
Founded by Cardinal Wolsey in 1524, and renewed by Henry VIII in 1546. This beautiful room, with a ceiling of carved oak, is 115 feet long and 50 feet high. It was used by the students as a dining hall. On the walls hang portraits, including Wolsey and Henry VIII by Holbein, Queen Elizabeth and other prominent people by famous artists. In the gateway of the college hangs the bell called "Great Tom"; every night at five minutes past nine this bell peals a curfew of 101 strokes, commemorating the original number of students. College gates all over Oxford are closed five minutes later.

ing. It was in his reign that the great Oxford teacher John Colet, together with Sir Thomas More, one of the most eminent men in the kingdom, and Erasmus, who had come over from the continent, were laying the foundations for a new era in English education (sec. 270). Henry at first gave countenance to their proposed reforms; but when the Lutheran movement in Germany went far beyond their proposals, he became alarmed and withdrew his support and even wrote a book against Luther. For this he received from the pope the title of Defender of the Faith.

For twenty years or more after Henry's accession his reign was brilliant. His success was due in a large measure to the skill and ability of his great minister, Cardinal Wolsey (wo͝ol′zĭ). Born among the lowly, the son of a butcher, Wolsey had shown such talent as a student in early manhood that he was taken into the service of his sovereign. His rise was rapid until he became Chancellor of the kingdom, the highest official beneath the throne. Wolsey's estates were vast, his power was kingly. Five hundred nobles attended him in his daily rounds. But his power was like moonlight; it was reflected. The king could destroy it all in a breath. And so it happened.

295. The Divorce. — Henry VIII had an elder brother named Arthur, who was married to the Spanish princess Catherine, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. A few months after the marriage Arthur died and Henry became heir to the crown. In order that the connection with so great a house as that of Spain be not lost, it was arranged that Henry marry his brother's widow. As such a marriage was forbidden by the church, a dispensation was obtained from the pope to sanction it.

For many years King Henry lived happily with Catherine. They had several children, all of whom died in early youth except their daughter Mary. At length the king began to have misgivings as to the legality of his marriage. He longed for a male heir to the throne. Moreover, he fell in love with one of the court maids, named Anne Boleyn (bo͝ol′ĭn). Henry determined to secure a divorce from Catherine and to marry Anne.



A Banquet, Sixteenth Century

From a woodcut published in 1549. The feasters have reached the dessert course consisting of sweetmeats, fruits, and wine. The furnishings and table service were simple; one used one's fingers or one's own knife instead of a fork. Bones and scraps were thrown to the floor for the dogs.

In order to have his marriage with Catherine annulled, the sanction of the pope was first to be secured. The king intrusted the matter to Wolsey. But there were obstacles in the way. The emperor Charles V, the most powerful monarch in Europe, who was a nephew of Catherine, objected to such an injury to his family. A trial in England, however, was arranged; but the pope reserved to himself the final decision, and after three years had passed nothing was yet settled. Henry's patience was at last exhausted and his wrath fell on Wolsey. The great cardinal was degraded from his office, his estates were seized, and he was reduced to poverty. Some time later, when about to be brought to trial, he died. The famous final words of the fallen minister were, "If I had served my God as diligently as I have done the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

296. **The Break with Rome.** — On the fall of Wolsey two equally prominent figures come to the foreground — Thomas Cranmer and Thomas Cromwell. Cranmer was soon made the archbishop of Canterbury, and he became the largest figure in the history of the Church of England.

Cromwell had been taken into the public service by Wolsey. On the fall of that prelate he was promoted rapidly until he reached the highest office in the gift of the king. On him and Cranmer developed the task of securing the divorce, which Wolsey had failed to secure. The advice of Cromwell was finally taken, namely, that the pope be ignored and that the matter be settled in the English courts. But this grave step involved breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church.

A Parliament, known as the Reformation Parliament, was called in 1532 and sat for seven years. In accordance with the king's desire it passed an act cutting off the revenues from England to the pope, which often were greater than the income of the king. An act was then passed abolishing appeals to Rome on all questions of marriage. A church court, with Archbishop Cranmer at its head, pronounced Henry's marriage with Catherine invalid.

Meantime the king had secretly married Anne Boleyn, who afterwards became the mother of Queen Elizabeth.

The next year, 1534, at the king's behest, Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy. This was a statute of far-reaching importance, the supreme act of the English Reformation. By it all connection of the English Church with Rome was severed, the king was made the head of the church, and from this date the Church of England begins as a separate organization.

Henry had some trouble in forcing the clergy to accept the new conditions, but the masses of the people were more indifferent and hence more easily led. There were several reasons for Henry's success in securing the separation. The general allegiance to the Catholic Church had been shaken in England as elsewhere by the Great Schism (sec. 279), by the merciless exposition of the abuses in the church by Erasmus and others, by the teachings of Wyclif, who had not yet been forgotten, and also by the successful revolt in Germany led by Luther. Moreover, Henry was a powerful ruler, who persecuted or put to death those who dared to oppose him. Few indeed could have thus led a great nation away from its religious bearings of a thousand years. What were his motives?

Henry VIII was not at heart a reformer nor a Protestant. We search in vain for any good motive for his action in making the Church of England independent. But there were many reasons: He was infatuated with Anne Boleyn; he had a morbid yearning for more power and for a blind submission of his people to himself; he wanted to be pope of England as well as king. Furthermore, Henry looked with a greedy eye on the great wealth of the monasteries, and he proceeded to confiscate their property to the crown.[1]

But viewed from a purely English standpoint, Henry did an important thing for England. He taught the nation that it could get along without the pope. The real Reformation came after his death.

297. The English Reformation. — Although Henry VIII was merely a rebellious Catholic, there were large numbers of the

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[1] It was said that the monasteries, of which there were 645, owned one fifth of the wealth of England. This vast wealth, seized by the king, went to the royal treasury, to the founding of schools, and to the rewarding of favorites.

English people who were ready to become real Protestants, and among them was Henry's son and successor, Edward VI.

Henry VIII left three children, of different mothers — Edward, Mary, and Elizabeth — and he made a will bestowing the crown on each in turn. If Edward left no heirs it was to pass to Mary, and if she left no heirs, to Elizabeth. Parliament sanctioned this arrangement.

When Edward VI came to the throne (1547) he was a boy of nine years. It was a time of great religious and political turmoil. The management of the kingdom, owing to the minority of the king, devolved on a great nobleman, the Duke of Somerset; but after two years he fell from power and the Duke of Northumberland succeeded him. Both these men favored the Protestant cause, and Archbishop Cranmer continued to be the religious leader of the nation. In 1549 he was head of a commission that prepared the *Book of Common Prayer* for use in the church service. Three years later he wrote forty-two articles of faith. These were later reduced to thirty-nine, and the Thirty-Nine Articles are still the distinctive creed of the Church of England.

298. Reformation in Northern Lands. — In Scotland the Reformation came a little later than in England and it was more complete. The great leader there was John Knox, who returned to Scotland after spending some years at Geneva in close association with Calvin. Knox was a born leader; he was impressive in appearance, tall and athletic, eloquent, and wore a flowing patriarchal beard.

Scotland adopted the teachings of Calvin more fully than any other country. It became the stronghold of the Presbyterian Church and so it remains to this day. At the death of Knox in 1572 the country was almost unanimously Protestant, though the sovereign had remained Catholic.

Even before the Reformation had been effected in England the Lutheran wave had swept over the Scandinavian countries. Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, together with Finland and Esthonia, became and still remain the most exclusively Lutheran countries in the world.

Holland also joined in the Reformation movement, accepting for the most part the doctrines of Zwingli.

III. THE COUNTER REFORMATION

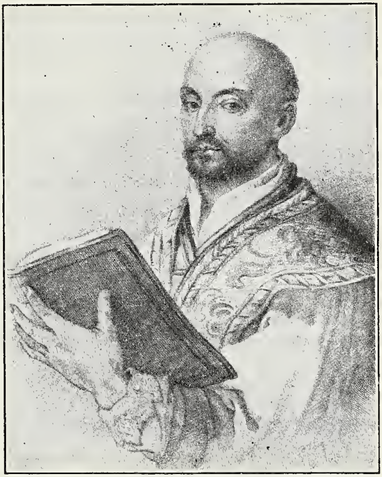
299. Beginning of the Reaction. — For nearly half a century after Luther posted his propositions on the church door at Wittenberg, the great Catholic Church suffered losses on all sides without making much effective resistance. This fact was due largely to the inefficiency and worldliness of the popes of the period; also to a widespread indifference of the people caused by the glaring abuses in the church, as well as to the ability and energy of the reformers.

But a time of reaction came. The Catholic Church began to realize the great extent of the Reformation movement; it roused itself to action, it put an end to wholesale conversions, and even won back a few sections that had been lost. This was made easier by the fact that the Protestants were divided among themselves and could not act in harmony.

The various means by which the Counter Reformation was brought about were, first, the election of better popes; second, the founding of the Society of Jesus by Loyo'la; third, the Council of Trent; fourth, the Inquisition; and fifth, the Index. These require some explanation.

300. Ignatius Loyola and the Jesuits. — Loyola was a Spanish soldier, a chivalric knight. Being severely wounded, he lay for several months on a sickbed in a castle. Having asked for books he was handed the *Lives of the Saints*. As he read he became imbued with an intense religious fervor. On his recovery he discarded his armor, put on the sackcloth of a beggar, and retired to a cave. Later he made a pilgrimage to Palestine and on his return took courses of study in Spain and at Paris. In 1534 he founded the famous Society of Jesus, known as the Jesuits (jĕz'u-its).

The Jesuit Society grew with great rapidity and soon became a power in the Catholic Church. Each member was obliged to surrender his will to the will of the order, and to take the triple vow of poverty, chastity, and obedience. To strengthen the church the Jesuits founded many schools and seminaries in many lands. They braved all perils in their missionary zeal in many parts of the world. They influenced kings and rulers and did everything in their power to bring back straying members to the Roman Catholic Church.



Ignatius Loyola
After a painting by Rubens.

Associated with Loyola in founding the new order was Francis Xavier (zăv'ĭ-er), a native of Spain. In 1542 Xavier started on a wonderful missionary tour in the East Indian Islands. For many years he labored in season and out of season. He organized many churches and baptized thousands of converts. The Jesuits sent missionaries also to the wilds of America to preach to the Indians. The self-denying labors of Father Marquette and others are well known.

301. Other Means of the Counter Reformation. — The Inquisition (sec. 254) was restored, especially in Spain and the Netherlands. In Spain the motto was "One people, one faith." Jews and Moors had been put to death in great numbers for religious and other reasons. When Protestantism dared to lift its head in Spain, the same methods were applied, and it was crushed.

The Council of Trent was called by the pope for the purpose of fixing the standards of belief for the Roman Catholic Church. It sat at intervals for many years, closing its work in 1563. Its decrees defined the Catholic belief, as the Confession of Augsburg set forth the Lutheran doctrine and the Thirty-Nine Articles those of the English Church. The Council of Trent condemned every article of purely Protestant faith and closed the last possible avenue of reconciliation. It also made important reforms in the government and discipline of the clergy.

By the Index is meant a list of prohibited books which Catholic people were forbidden to read. The practice of prohibiting certain books still continues, and while it has had largely its intended effect, it has also deprived many Catholics of the benefits of some of the greatest works in culture and science.

From the above-mentioned causes and from the fact that there was a genuine reform in the Catholic Church, in both " head and members," a reaction from the sweep of Protestantism was effected. A few minor countries in which the Protestants had made much progress were reclaimed to the Catholic Church. These were Poland, Bavaria, and the greater part of Hungary.

302. A View of the Catholic and Protestant Faiths. — Since the century that brought the Protestant Reformation, no great changes have taken place in the religious faith of any European country. Since 1600 there have been no wholesale conversions to or from either side.

It will be noted that it was the Teutonic north, which had resisted the Roman Empire, that broke away from the Catholic Church, while southern Europe retained the old faith. But in these days of religious toleration there are many Catholics in Protestant countries, and many Protestants in Catholic countries. In Germany, England, and the United States there is a mixture, but the Protestants greatly predominate. The countries of southwestern Europe and South America are almost wholly Roman Catholic, while the three Scandinavian countries are almost unanimously Lutheran and Scotland is almost unanimously Presbyterian.

The Roman Catholics throughout the world are united in one vast religious body, the supreme head of which is the pope at Rome.

The Protestants, on the contrary, are divided into many independent sects or denominations, differing from one another in minor matters of belief or government. Some deplore the divisions among Protestants, but others believe that the condition is better than if they were united, because the friendly rivalry proves a stimulant to activity and higher life, and any one may find a church suited to his temperament.

303. **Points of Difference.** — As regards the great vital questions of Christianity Catholics and nearly all Protestants stand on the same ground. Both believe in the Fatherhood of God and the Sonship of Christ. Both believe in the Trinity, in the atonement of Christ, and in the founding of the Church for the salvation of men and the guidance of their lives.

There are three points of difference between the Protestant and Catholic faiths that may be deemed fundamental. First, the Protestants recognize one and only one source of faith — the Bible. Catholics recognize three sources — the Bible, tradition, and decrees of popes and councils. Second, Protestants believe in justification by faith alone; they believe that salvation is a gift of divine grace, and that man has no power to earn it, — that his good works flow naturally from a loving heart. Catholics believe that good works as well as faith are necessary to salvation. Third, Protestants believe in the right of private judgment, that is, that the individual stands alone before his God and must judge for himself what is right and true. Catholics believe that the church is a necessary and infallible guide to the individual in matters of faith and morals.

To one or more of these three fundamentals all differences between the two faiths may be traced.

304. General View of the Reformation. — The Protestant Reformation divided western Christendom almost in the middle and so it has remained from that time to the present. The attitude of Catholics and Protestants toward one another has been greatly softened since the strenuous days of the Reformation. They have learned to live in friendly relations with one another, each going his own way and letting the other alone in matters of religion. The divisions of Protestantism arise from the fundamental principle of the right of private judgment.

That the leading reformers were men of great sincerity of purpose and commanding ability cannot be doubted. But it must be added that many of the princes in Germany, as well as the English king, were influenced in part by a desire to lay hands on the rich monasteries and to get possession of their treasures. They desired also to get complete control over the courts and over taxation in their respective dominions. It can be seen, therefore, that the great changes brought about by the Reformation were political as well as religious.

Side Talk

The Story of Perkin Warbeck. — That an unknown, beardless youth of twenty, by laying claim to the English crown, could win great numbers to his cause, could make the English monarch tremble for his throne, would be the cause of the execution of great nobles and the death of hundreds of other men, and would keep all Europe agog for six years, seems beyond belief.

When Richard III became king of England in 1483 he was confronted with the fact that his deceased brother, King Edward IV, had left two little sons. The children were thrown into the Tower of London (see page 275), and here it was believed King Richard had them murdered. Two years later (1485) King Richard was slain at the battle of Bosworth and Henry VII became king. Now we are ready for the story.

One day early in the year 1492 a merchant vessel from Lisbon cast anchor in the harbor of Cork, Ireland, and among the passengers was a young man aged about twenty, handsome and courtly in bearing. No one knew him. A writer of the times tells us that " he had such a crafty and bewitching fashion, both to move pity and to induce belief, as was like a kind of fascination or enchantment to those that saw him or heard him."

It soon became rumored that the young man was Richard, Duke of York, the second son of Edward IV, and that he had escaped from the Tower where his elder brother was murdered. Whether he deftly started the report, or merely assumed the character after the people had suggested it, is not clear. At least, he assumed the character and a crowd gathered to do him honor.

The mayor and the people of Cork believed the young man's story. In fact a large number of people accepted it and offered their services in his behalf. The king of France sent an embassy to invite the youth to Paris. Thither he went and was received with royal honors. By this time the English king was thoroughly alarmed. He had been about to declare war on France, but he now hastened to offer to make a treaty of peace on the condition that the French king expel the pretender from his country. The boy then fled to Margaret, the Duchess of Burgundy, an aunt of the true Duke of York. He declared that he had escaped from the London prison seven years before, and that he had lived in hiding since then. Margaret believed his story and received him as her nephew. Later he went to Scotland, and the Scottish king espoused his cause and helped him to raise an army with which to invade England.

Meantime the English king had employed experts to ferret out the history and pedigree of the youth. The experts professed to discover that he was the son of poor parents of Tournai (tōōr-nĕ′) in the Netherlands, and that his name was Perkin Warbeck. But the king knew that thousands of his people believed the boy to be the true Duke of York and that his throne was in some danger. He sent an army against the invaders from Scotland. He was successful, and Warbeck was captured. After making his escape, the boy was recaptured and put to death. To this day it is not absolutely known whether the lad was a false pretender or the real Duke of York.

Questions and Topics. — I. Who was the leading Swiss reformer? What was the object of his meeting with Luther? Give the life story of John Calvin. Contrast his character with that of Luther.

II. What can you tell of the Wars of the Roses? of Henry VII? of the early part of the reign of Henry VIII? What seem to have been the motives of Henry VIII in breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church? When and in whose reign did England become really Protestant? What are the Thirty-nine Articles? Who was Archbishop Cranmer?

III. Why did the Roman Catholic Church do so little to check the Reformation movement at first? What can you tell of the life and work of Loyola? of Francis Xavier? What other means were employed in the Counter Reformation? What was the cause of the Catholic Counter Reformation? How are the countries of Europe divided between the Catholic and Protestant faiths? On what vital questions are Catholics and Protestants in agreement? What are their fundamental points of difference? What is the cause of the divisions of Protestantism?

Events and Dates. — Zwingli begins Reformation in Switzerland, 1518. Birth of Calvin, 1509. Henry VIII becomes king of England, 1509. The English Church breaks with Rome, 1534. Loyola founds Jesuit Society, 1534.

For Further Reading. — Most of the books mentioned under the last chapter will answer for this one also. To these, biographies of Zwingli, Calvin, and Loyola should be added.

CHAPTER XXV

THE ENGLAND OF ELIZABETH'S TIME

I. The Reign of Queen Mary

305. Lady Jane Grey. — There is no more pathetic story in the history of England than that of Lady Jane Grey, the "Nine Days' Queen."

Edward VI (sec. 297), the boy king of England, did not live to reach manhood. He died at the age of fifteen. The Duke of Northumberland, who had been governor of the realm under the young king, was a man of unbounded and selfish ambition. When he saw that the young king was about to die he devised a bold plan to retain the governing power within his own hands. He determined to set aside Mary, the eldest daughter of Henry VIII, and place Lady Jane Grey on the throne. Lady Jane, who was also in the royal line as a descendant of Henry VII, was a daughter-in-law of Northumberland. She was but a girl of sixteen, lovely in appearance and in character, fond of books, a delight to her companions. When Lady Jane was informed that she was to be queen of England her answer was beyond her years. She spoke of the rights of Mary and Elizabeth, declaring that she herself had no right to the crown. She said that it was mocking God to scruple at stealing a shilling and not at stealing a crown. But her will at last was broken and she yielded to her elders.

The people of England, however, did not approve, for two chief reasons: first, their sense of justice told them that Mary was the true heir to the crown and should have it; second, they despised the haughty Northumberland and would have him rule over them no longer. Lady Jane had no enemies, but the people refused to make her their queen; they gave their shouts to Mary, and Northumberland's power melted away.

306. The Reign of Mary. — At the age of thirty-six Mary Tudor ascended the throne of England (1553). Her life had been one of humiliation and disappointment; now her prospects for a brilliant career were most flattering. But it was not long before she began to awaken the criticism and later the hatred of her people. Northumberland was tried for treason and put to death, and few there were to mourn him; but when the innocent, lovable Lady Jane Grey was condemned to the same fate, the people wailed and they never fully forgave the woman who caused it.

Queen Mary, like her mother Catherine, was a Catholic. When her mother suffered the humiliation of a divorce from Henry VIII (secs. 295, 296), the Catholic Church had stood by her to the last. Now Mary's hope was to bring England back to its former religious allegiance; but she made a serious mistake in using force for this purpose.

The greatest misstep that the new queen made was in marrying Philip II, son of Emperor Charles V, and soon to become king of Spain. Her chief object was to enlist the aid of Spain in leading England back to the Catholic fold. This the people resented deeply. They hated Spain and feared that England would be made a mere adjunct to that country.

Again, Mary made herself extremely unpopular by her persecutions for heresy. It is true that the age was an age of persecution, and that Protestant rulers as well as Catholics were intolerant; but in England under Mary there were more executions for heresy than during any other reign. Among the victims burned at the stake in her reign was Archbishop Cranmer, the highest church dignitary in England.

Queen Mary's career was pitiable. All her hopes were disappointed. She loved her husband Philip, but he cared nothing for her. Her efforts to make England Catholic made it more Protestant. In a war with France she lost Calais, the last

English possession on the Continent. She knew that her people hated her and wished for her death. Finally, the crown of her misfortunes came when she learned that she would have no children and that she would soon die from an incurable disease. On November 17, 1558, the tragic, lonely, joyless life of Queen Mary was ended.

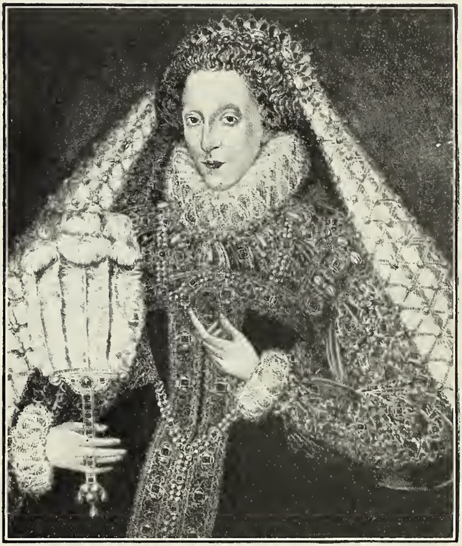
II. THE REIGN OF ELIZABETH (1558–1603)

307. The Virgin Queen. — At the age of twenty-five Elizabeth began her long reign of forty-five years. When informed that her half-sister had passed away and that she was to be queen, she exclaimed, "This is the Lord's doings and it is marvelous in our eyes." She remained unmarried to the end of her life and was called the Virgin Queen. From this fact the first of the permanent English colonies in North America was named Virginia.

The young queen was tall and graceful in her bearing; her eyes were hazel and penetrating and she had a wealth of auburn hair. As a woman she was jovial and full of girlish gayety, fond of dress and of jewelry, frivolous and sometimes coarse in her language. She loved the banquet and the dance, and also the more virile sports of hawking and the chase.

As a sovereign Elizabeth was thoughtful, industrious, far-sighted. Around her council board sat men of wide experience in statesmanship; she listened to their counsel and made her own decisions. She was one of the greatest statesmen in her time, and during her long reign she was the real governing force in England. Her chief adviser for forty years was Lord Burghley (bûr′lĭ), an ancestor of the late Marquis of Salisbury (sôlz′bẽr-ĭ), who was British prime minister during part of the reign of Queen Victoria.

308. Elizabeth and the Church. — The most vital of the questions to be settled in the early part of Elizabeth's reign was that of the church. Her father, Henry VIII, had broken away from Rome; Edward VI had swung the nation far to the Protestant side, and Mary had attempted to bring it back to the Catholic fold. The religion of the people swayed to and fro with the caprice of the sovereign and the ever-changing politics. What will the new queen do in settling the religious question?



Queen Elizabeth

This portrait was presented by the Queen to Sir Henry Sidney, who served as lord deputy of Ireland in her reign.

As Mary was a Catholic by inheritance, Elizabeth was a Protestant for the same reason. But Elizabeth was very wise and prudent. She took a middle course. Had she at first pronounced radically for either side, she would have alienated the other and endangered her crown.

In fact, the queen had no very deep religious convictions; she hated controversy and she disliked the extremes of both sides. So tactful was she that when Philip of Spain asked for her hand in marriage, she put him off several years until she felt secure on her throne, before she answered with a positive No. Even the pope was deceived by the wily queen. She permitted him to believe that she might be reclaimed some time, and so dexterously did she evade committing herself finally on the religious question that twelve years passed before the papal patience was exhausted and she was excommunicated. During the twelve years she had so completely won the love of her people that nothing could disturb the crown she wore.

It was in Elizabeth's reign that the doctrines and worship of the Church of England were given their final form. They are the doctrines and worship known in America as those of the Episcopal Church. Parliament then passed acts compelling all English subjects to conform to the English Church, and during Elizabeth's long reign a number of Catholics were put to death for refusing to do so.

During the reign of Elizabeth the subjugation of Ireland, begun under Henry VIII, was completed with much cruelty. Great sections of the island were given to English landlords. This accounts in part for the fact that the Irish refused to accept the Protestant faith and remained true to the Catholic Church.

309. Mary Queen of Scots. — The person who gave Elizabeth more trouble than any one else in the world was her cousin, whom she never saw — Mary Queen of Scots. Mary, a descendant of Henry VII, was the idol of the Catholic party, a claimant of the English throne on the ground that Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn (sec. 296), was illegitimate and had no right to it.

Mary is an important historic character. Born to the Scottish throne, she was crowned queen of Scotland before she was a year old, and at the age of fifteen she was married to the young king of France, Francis II. But Francis died the next year (1560) and Mary was a widow in her girlhood, at the age of seventeen. She then returned to her own land and became the reigning queen of Scotland. The Scots had become Protestant, but

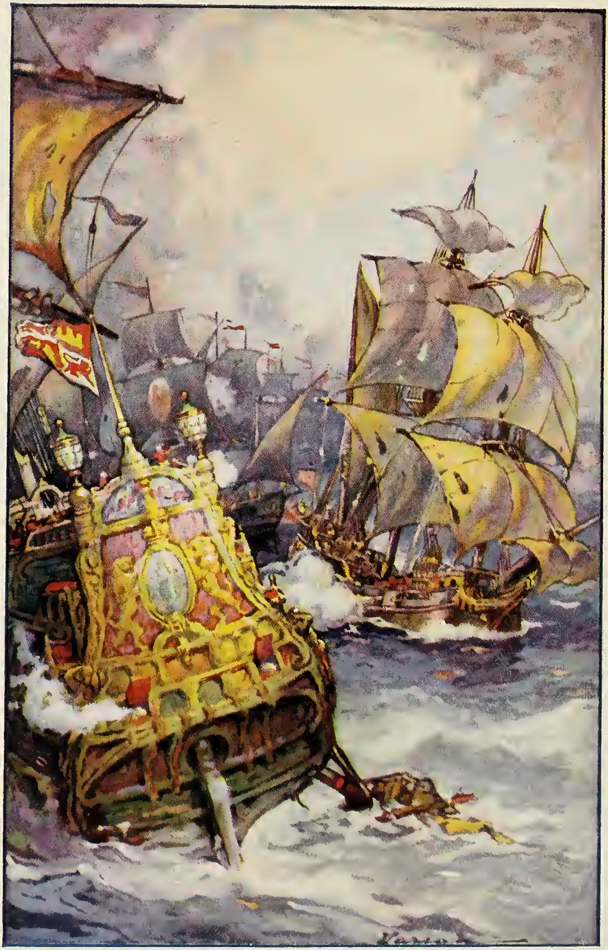
Mary remained a Catholic and each agreed not to molest the other in religion.

Some time later Mary married her cousin Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, and was the mother of a prince who was destined to become king of England as James I, the successor of Elizabeth.

But Mary and her husband did not get on well together. He was murdered; and her people, believing she had a hand in the foul crime, rose in rebellion against her. She fled into England and became a prisoner of her rival, Elizabeth. In various castles she was detained for many a long year. Like a caged wild bird striving in vain for the freedom of the sky, the fallen queen fretted away her beauty and her life in her endless longing for liberty.

At last a widespread plot to dethrone Elizabeth and place Mary on the English throne was discovered, and Mary was accused of being one of the conspirators. She was put on trial for her life, convicted, and sentenced to die. Elizabeth hesitated long before signing the death warrant, but at last did so, and the queen without a crown was executed, after nineteen years as a prisoner in England (1587).

310. The Spanish Armada (1588). — Seldom has England in all her history done so great a thing as when she defeated the Spanish Armada (ar-mā′da). Spain at this moment was the greatest power in Europe, and Philip II was king of Spain. Philip regarded himself as the world's greatest champion of Catholicism, and the hope of his life was that he might be the instrument in bringing the Protestant countries back to the Catholic Church. He had married Queen Mary of England with this end in view, but that project had failed, and now, after the death of Mary Queen of Scots, he raked up a shadowy claim that his own daughter by an earlier marriage, being a descendant of a former English king, was the true heir to the English throne. On this pretext Philip determined to subdue the island kingdom, and he gathered a great Armada, or fleet of warships. Men of every class from the noble to the common sailor joined the expedition; but its commander was a man of little skill and little experience.



Defeat of the Spanish Armada

One day in July, 1588, this mighty fleet, the greatest ever yet seen in European waters, 132 ships bearing 32,000 men, was sighted in a grand crescent several miles in extent, approaching the coast of Cornwall, the southwest county of England. There was great excitement throughout the land, and the English rose to the occasion, Catholic and Protestant alike. A writer of the time says, " All her whole realm, and every corner, was furnished with armed men, on horseback and on foot."

But there was no need of an army, for not a Spanish soldier was permitted to land. The English fleet was commanded by that famous triumvirate of " sea dogs," Lord Howard, Sir Francis Drake, and Sir Martin Frob'isher. They stood out to sea and attacked the enemy, destroying many of his vessels.[1] Fighting continued for a week. The remaining Spanish vessels fled up the Channel and later tried to reach Spain by sailing around Scotland. But here they encountered terrific gales and many of them were wrecked and went to the bottom of the sea. The project of conquering England ended in utter failure.

The defeat of the Spanish Armada marks an important point in history. It brought to an end the greatness of Spain as a sea power, and from it dates the beginning of England's supremacy on the sea. It has also been pronounced the opening event in American history. Spain had claimed all of North America as well as South America, and every English ship in American waters was subject to capture by Spanish men-of-war; but with the defeat of the Armada Spain was so crippled on the sea that she could no longer guard the coast, and England soon began to plant her colonies in the western world.

311. Life and Society in the Time of Elizabeth. — In no other respect do the English differ so widely from us Americans as in the caste system, from which we are happily free in this country. The English, like the people in many other countries, are divided into castes or classes of different ranks, as the nobility and the common people. Those born in the upper class have privileges which the common people have not. To an American it seems very strange and very absurd that a great statesman like Gladstone or a great poet like Browning should take second place on state occasions to some noble who might be devoid of brains and character, or to a ten-year-old boy who happened to be born a duke.[1]

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[1] The galleons which formed the Spanish Armada, pictured on the opposite page, were elegant in appearance and beautifully decorated, and they stood high out of the water. The English fleet was made up of smaller ships, no larger than a present-day yacht, but they were swifter, and offered a smaller target for the enemy's guns. There were nearly twice as many ships in the Armada as in the English fleet, but the latter were better armed, and fired four shots to one by the Spanish.

In the days of Elizabeth there was much distress among the farmers, and it was due chiefly to the caste system. Great tracts of land were owned by the nobility. On these estates lived in little huts large numbers of small farmers who paid rent to the landlords. But when the price of wool rose, many landlords decided to evict their tenants, turn their lands into pasture, and raise sheep. Thousands of country homes, and even whole villages, were torn down for this reason. The farmers were obliged to move; but they had nowhere to go. Many of them starved; others became thieves and vagabonds.

Parliament came to the rescue and passed a law forbidding anyone to keep more than a certain number of sheep, and requiring that a certain percentage of the land be tilled. This law and a fall in the price of wool brought relief and better conditions to the farmers.

Next above the small farmer was the great middle class — merchants, traders, manufacturers — who were rapidly growing rich. The Dutch had been far in advance of the English in weaving good cloth; but, driven by religious persecution, many of them crossed the Channel and settled in England. They taught the English how to make the best textiles, and aided in laying the foundations of England's industrial greatness.

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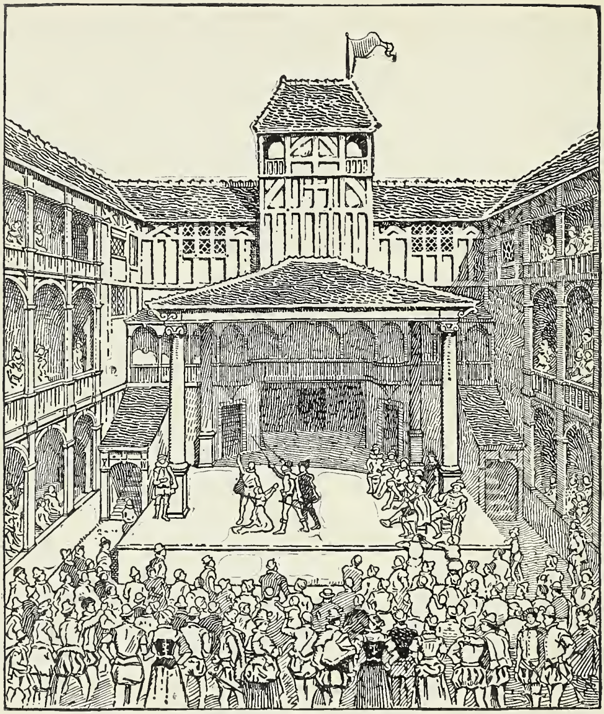
[1] The people of England, however, have taken over the reins of government and have made it a truly democratic country. The caste system is social, not political.

The highest class of society, just below the throne, was the nobility, divided into various grades. Many of the nobles held office and were industrious, but the majority spent their time in games and riding and hunting. Many were very rich and kept troops of horses and packs of hounds, while trains of servants waited at their beck and call, and multitudes of tenants tilled their broad acres. A class attached to the nobles, but of no particular occupation, were known as "gentlemen."

312. The Elizabethan Age of Literature. — The age of Elizabeth was an age of very great importance in the development of England. As a sea power the nation stepped to the front and has remained there ever since. Great industrial achievement and advance in agriculture marked the reign. But the most notable single feature that characterized the period was the wonderful outburst of literature.

No other age compares with this in its literary product. The leading figures were Ben Jonson, Edmund Spenser, and especially William Shakespeare. It is agreed by most critics that Shakespeare (1564–1616) was the greatest literary genius in the history of the world. Born of poor parents at Stratford-on-Avon in central England, he went to London as a young man, without a higher education, to seek his fortune. He attached himself to the theater and after serving some years in inferior positions, he began the writing of dramas. His works were not collected and printed in book form until after his death.

Shakespeare is justly admired as the supreme poet of the human race. His marvelous power of expression is a source of continuous astonishment to the reader. He saw deeper into the human heart than any other man that ever lived. Among the scores of characters that march before us on the Shakespearean stage no two are alike; each represents his class and is a perfect type, whether a hero or a villain, a king or a servant, or merely an average man or woman. "No king could be more kingly," says one writer, "than those of his creation; no maiden knows more of woman's love than he knew." The loftiest heights of



An Elizabethan Theater — Restoration

The courtyards of London inns often served as playhouses before regular theaters were built. These inn yards furnished many suggestions for the early theaters, as the picture shows. The stage was in one end, and the open space in front served as the pit. The galleries around the sides afforded additional space for spectators. The plays were given in the afternoon, as artificial lighting was impossible. The occupants of the pit had the sky for roof, and had often to seek shelter from storm. There was almost total lack of scenery. For example, a painted sign alone indicated Prospero's Island in Shakespeare's *Tempest.* The audience welcomed complicated plots and long monologues if these presented ideas of worth. The theater took the place of lectures, newspapers, and magazines. The plays of Ben Jonson and Shakespeare were first given under such conditions.

imagination and the profoundest depths of human thought were comprehended within the grasp of his wonderful mind.

Thomas Carlyle says of Shakespeare, " Here is an English king whom no time nor chance, parliament, or combination of parliaments can dethrone. The latest generations of men will find new meanings in Shakespeare, new elucidations of their own human being."

SIDE TALK

Queen Elizabeth and the Earl of Essex. — Though Queen Elizabeth never married she had several favorites among her subjects. One of these was the young Earl of Essex, whom she loved as a mother loves a son. The earl was an accomplished youth, handsome, generous, and impulsive. The queen, nearly forty years his senior, admitted him to the inner circle of her friends and showered him with favors, though he often annoyed and vexed her with his thoughtless behavior. He spent his time in the royal palaces or fighting the enemies of the country on the Spanish seas. When he went off on an expedition the queen would charge his superior officers to keep him out of danger. In spite of this he rushed into the battle at every opportunity and won fame as a reckless and daring fighter.

One day the queen gave the earl a ring and said that if ever he should fall out of her favor he should send her the ring as a reminder of her friendship for him, and she assured him that it would secure a pardon.

As years passed the earl often offended the queen with his insubordination. On one occasion she angrily boxed his ears and he fled from the palace in a rage. Later he was again in favor and was made governor of Ireland. Not being very successful, he fell into disfavor and was cast into prison. On gaining his liberty the earl engaged in a plot to overthrow the queen and get possession of London. He was arrested by Elizabeth's soldiers, was put on trial for treason, and was condemned to death. As he lay in prison awaiting the fatal day he became very penitent and sorrowful. Then he remembered the promise that the queen had made when she gave him the ring and he determined to send it to her and implore her pardon. He gave it to the Countess of Nottingham and asked her to hand it to the queen and remind her of her promise of years ago. This she would have done, but her husband, an enemy of the Earl of Essex, prevented her.

Meantime Elizabeth was in despair. She still loved the earl and wondered why he did not send her the ring and beg for mercy. After many agonizing days and in the belief that the earl was too stiff-necked to ask her pardon, she signed the death warrant and the earl was put to death. Never was Elizabeth herself again. At every mention of the earl she would burst into tears. She would walk the floor for hours at a time wringing her hands. Then came the blow from which she could not recover. The Countess of Nottingham was on her deathbed. She sent for the queen with the message that something weighed on her mind that she must tell. As the queen entered the sick chamber the countess handed her the ring and told the story related above. The queen was enraged beyond measure. She said to the dying woman, "God may forgive you if he pleases; I never will," and left the room. Elizabeth died the next year and it was believed that her death was hastened by the tragedy of the Earl of Essex.

It is an interesting fact that the ring mentioned was sold in London on July 12, 1927, for $2650. The ring bears a portrait of Elizabeth carved in sardonyx cameo. The purchaser presented the ring to the nation, and it is to be kept on Elizabeth's tomb in Westminster Abbey.

Questions and Topics. — I. Relate the story of Lady Jane Grey. Why did the Duke of Northumberland attempt to make her queen? Why did Queen Mary gradually lose the allegiance of her people? Who was Philip II?

II. Describe Elizabeth as a woman; as a statesman. What were her relations to the pope? Had Mary Queen of Scots a right to the English throne? Why did Philip II wish to subdue England? Relate the story of the Armada. Write an essay on the caste system. What can you say of the peasant class? the middle class? Have you read any of the poems of Spenser? Jonson? What dramas of Shakespeare have you read?

Events and Dates. — Mary, Queen of England, 1553–1558. Reign of Elizabeth, 1558–1603. Defeat of the Spanish Armada, 1588. Shakespeare, 1564–1616.

For Further Reading. — The short histories of England by Green, Ransome, Gardiner, Andrews, and Cross. Creighton, *Age of Elizabeth.* Beesly, *Queen Elizabeth.* Lee, *Source Book of English History.* Robinson, *Readings in European History*, II.

CHAPTER XXVI

THE RELIGIOUS WARS

I. THE HUGUENOT WARS IN FRANCE

313. Cause of the Religious Wars. — The Protestant Reformation, as we have noticed, divided western Europe into two hostile religious sections, hostile because the intolerant spirit of the Middle Ages was a long time in giving way to the liberal spirit of modern times. It required more than a hundred years for this change to come about, and the period was full of strife and bloodshed.

In Italy and Spain Protestantism was nipped in the bud by the Inquisition and the Counter Reformation. In the Scandinavian countries and in England and Scotland the Reformation was so sweeping that the remaining Catholics were too few to raise a hand against the majority. These countries therefore were comparatively free from the disastrous religious wars. It is in the countries of mixed religious population that we find the long-continued fratricidal strife. These were France, the Netherlands, and Germany.

The three most notable religious struggles, all of which were partly political, were, (1) the Huguenot (hū′gē̆-nŏt) Wars in France, (2) the revolt of the Netherlands, and (3) the Thirty Years' War in Germany.

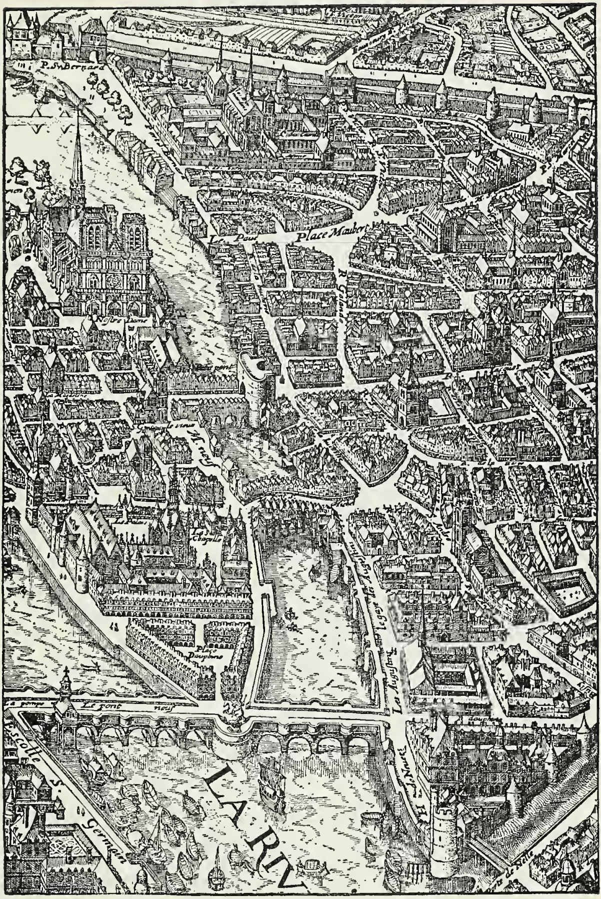
314. The Huguenots and the Massacre of St. Bartholomew. — Beginning with 1562 eight civil wars were recorded in France in the period of thirty-six years. It is needless to notice them separately. The Protestants of France were called Huguenots. They numbered perhaps 400,000. Their leaders were the Prince of Condé (kôɴ-dā′) and the great French admiral, Coligny (kȯ-lēn′yē). On the Catholic side the leaders were the Duke of

Guise (gü-ēz′) and Catherine de Medici (mĕd′ē̍-chē), who was the mother of three French kings. The first of these three, Francis II, was the husband of Mary Queen of Scots (sec. 309). The second of the brothers, Charles IX, was but nine years of age when he came to the throne, and but eleven when the first civil war began.

One day in 1562 as the Catholic Duke of Guise was passing through the country near Vassy (vȧ-sē′) with a band of armed men, he came upon a large congregation of Huguenots assembled in a barn for worship. He attacked them and in the fight sixty people were killed and two hundred wounded. The Huguenots rose all over France and a fierce war was the result, — the first of the religious wars. At length a peace was patched up, but the war broke out again and still again.

The fourth of these conflicts was begun in Paris[1] by the dreadful massacre of St. Bartholomew (1572). Catherine, the queen mother, who thirsted for power above all things, saw with dismay that her son, Charles IX, no longer looked to her for advice but had made the Huguenot leader Coligny his chief adviser. She plotted to murder the great admiral and secured an assassin to shoot him. Coligny was wounded, but not killed. This wicked woman then, in fear of being discovered, worked upon the weak mind of her son the king. She led him to believe that the Protestants were about to rise against the Catholics. After much persuasion he consented to her plot to massacre the Huguenots, and the night before St. Bartholomew's Day the bloody work was attempted. The wounded Coligny himself was one of the first victims. The assassins broke into the Huguenot homes and slew

[1] The view of Paris on the opposite page shows part of the island in the Seine River on which was located the original Gallic town. The section at the right was the Latin Quarter, so called as it was the seat of the University of Paris (sec. 264). The city was surrounded by walls (1,1). The island was connected with the city by bridges, two of which were lined with dwelling houses; the third bridge (2) the Pont Neuf, was built by Henry IV (sec. 315). Near the lower end of the island was the great prison (3) with its pointed towers. The cathedral of Notre Dame (4) was completed in the thirteenth century.


1
I
4
3
2
I
P. St Bernard
Place Maubert
Le Pont
Nostre Dame
Le pont neuf
Les Chapelle
Place Dauphine
La pompe
Les Augustins
LA RIV
S. Germain
Pont de Nesle

Portion of Old Paris

the people in their beds. On this fateful night at least 2000 perished in Paris and about 8000 during the next few days in other parts of the country.

315. King Henry of Navarre and the Edict of Nantes. — In 1589, during the last of the eight civil wars, Catherine's third son died and Henry IV — descended from a younger son of Saint Louis (sec. 244) — inherited the French throne. He was known as Henry of Navarre,[1] and was the first of the Bourbon (bo͞or′bun)[2] line of kings.

Henry IV was a Protestant, and he had to fight for several years for his throne. Having gained it, and feeling that it would be better if he and his people were of the same religion, he became a Catholic, at least nine tenths of his people being of that faith.

But King Henry did not forget his old associates, the Huguenots. In 1598 he issued from the city of Nantes (nănts) a document famous in French history, — the Edict of Nantes. By this edict the king granted the Protestants the right to worship in their own way, also full civil rights and the right to hold office. He also gave them independent political rights such as no country at this day grants any religious body. The Edict of Nantes was in force more than eighty years.

316. Cardinal Richelieu (1585–1642). — The greatest French statesman between Charlemagne and Napoleon Bonaparte was Richelieu (rē-shē̆-lyû′).

Henry of Navarre, after a brilliant reign, was assassinated in 1610 and for some years thereafter the country was in a state of disorder. Then came Richelieu. The king, Louis XIII, was weak in everything except his ability to select the ablest man in his kingdom as minister of state. Richelieu came into full power in 1624, and to the day of his death in 1642 he was master of the French kingdom.

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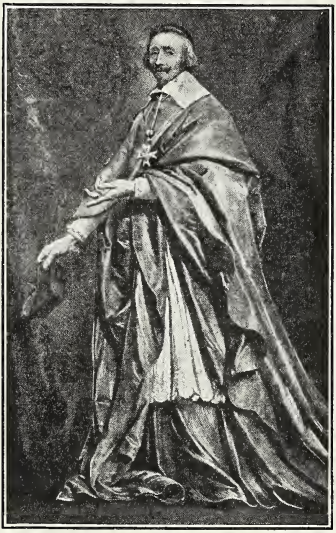
[1] One of Macaulay's most stirring war ballads makes this king its subject. It commemorates the battle of Ivry (ēv-rē′), fought in 1590. It begins thus:

> "Now glory to the Lord of Hosts from whom all glories are,
> And glory to our sovereign liege, King Henry of Navarre."

[2] The family was called Bourbon from their ancient domain of that name, located in Central France. The former kingdom of Navarre, now parts of France and Spain, is shown on the map following page 278.

With the eye of the true statesman, Richelieu saw the evils of his country and with a master hand he set about to correct them. Three great tasks he imposed on himself: (1) to deprive the Huguenots of the political and military power unwisely granted them by the Edict of Nantes; (2) to clip the wings of the nobility, who had become arrogant and threatening since the death of Henry IV; (3) to humble the House of Hapsburg (sec. 249), the great rival of the French royal family.



Cardinal Richelieu

From a portrait in the Louvre.

The Huguenots had become menacing in their political and military power. Richelieu besieged and captured La Rochelle, their chief city, and disarmed them throughout the country. And then, instead of forcing them back into the Catholic Church or burning them at the stake, as many a ruler of that time would have done, he granted them freedom of conscience and of worship and all the civil rights enjoyed by the Catholics. No statesman from that day to the present has improved on this noble act of Cardinal Richelieu.

The nobility were haughty and defiant. Richelieu saw that for the good of the state it was necessary to subdue them. But many of the great lords, entrenched in their castles, sought to continue their old feudal practices and defied his power. One of the greatest dukes in the kingdom, declaring that he would not be governed by this upstart, openly violated the law. Richelieu had him hanged in a public square in the city of Paris. The nobles soon learned that there was a master at the helm. They were completely subdued and never afterward did they successfully encroach on the royal authority.

The third of Richelieu's projects, the humbling of the House of Hapsburg, will be noticed in the account of the Thirty Years' War (sec. 325).

II. Revolt of the Netherlands

317. Spain and the Netherlands. — No people ever fought more heroically for religious freedom than the people of the Netherlands, comprising what is now Belgium and Holland. Much of the land lies below the level of the sea and is reclaimed for cultivation by dikes, ridges of earth thrown up by the hand of man. Centuries of heroic struggle were required to complete the extensive system of dikes and canals. More fertile and beautiful farms and meadows cannot be found in Europe than those inclosed by the dikes and drained by the canals of the Netherlands. There were also splendid cities, and the land was rich and prosperous.

The people may be divided into two classes, the Walloons in the south, who spoke the French language, and the Teutons of the north, who spoke the kindred languages, Dutch and Flemish.

The whole country in the sixteenth century was a possession of the Spanish crown, having become so through Hapsburg marriages (sec. 277).

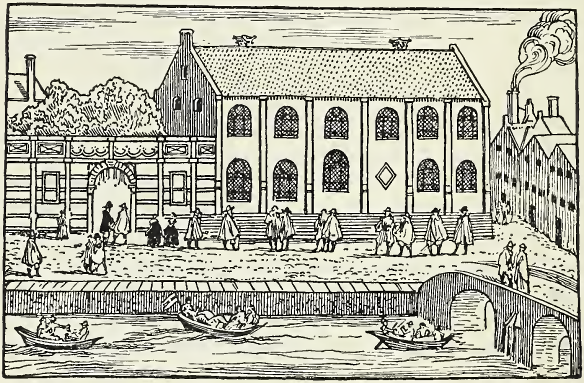
The great majority of the people, especially in the north, had been converted to Protestantism. But the emperor Charles V, and later his son Philip II, determined to force them back into the Catholic Church. Hence came one of the most distressing of the religious wars. Charles introduced the Inquisition and there were many burnings at the stake. He went so far as to pronounce the sentence of death on all who discussed the Scriptures or attended secret prayer meetings. When Philip came to the Spanish throne he carried the persecution still further and waged ruthless war on the unhappy people.

318. The Duke of Alva and the Council of Blood. — Philip II was in the Netherlands when his father, Charles V, gave him the throne of Spain (sec. 289). Here he remained for four years, laying his plans for the suppression of heresy and for increasing the power of the crown, and then he departed for Spain, never to return. As governor of the Netherlands he chose Margaret, his half-sister. She mercilessly employed the Inquisition. Led by the nobles, the people petitioned for better conditions. In derision they were called beggars. They accepted the term and adopted " Beggars " as their party name.

As their grievances were not redressed, the people broke forth in uncontrollable fury. They invaded the Catholic churches and destroyed beautiful works of art, stained-glass windows and sacred images. Would Philip heed such warnings that these people would not permit him to rule like a despot and dictate their religion? Instead, he sent to succeed Margaret the Duke of Alva, whose name in history means about the same as human butcher.

Alva was a bigoted tyrant to whom mercy was a meaningless word. Arriving at Brussels in 1567, accompanied by 10,000 Spanish soldiers, he set up an infamous council known as the Council of Blood. Its duties were to ferret out and punish all who were suspected of heresy or who had taken part in the image-breaking riots. He is said to have boasted later that he put to death in this unhappy land 18,000 people. Nor did he confine himself to Protestants. He put to death Catholics also, and among his victims were Counts Egmont and Horn, leading Catholic nobles who had espoused the cause of the people. Thousands of the inhabitants escaped into Germany. Among these was the Prince of Orange, known as William the Silent, who was destined to become the savior of the country.

319. William the Silent and the Founding of a Nation. — The name of William the Silent stands in the same class as those of Alfred the Great and George Washington. He is called the Prince of Orange, because he owned an estate in southern France named Orange. He came to be known as the Silent because on one occasion when the French king told him that there was an agreement between Spain and France to root out Protestantism from the Netherlands with fire and sword, he remained silent, though in his soul he resolved to defend the people of the Netherlands with his fortune and his life.



University of Leyden

From an engraving made in 1614. This university was founded by William the Silent in 1575, as a reward for the heroic defense of the city in the previous year. According to tradition the citizens were offered their choice between a university and exemption from certain taxes. They chose the university. From 1625, for almost 200 years, this was one of the famous universities of Europe. It was to the city of Leyden that a band of separatists went in 1607–1608, from England, to escape persecution for their independence in religion. Some of them, known to history as the Pilgrim Fathers, came from Leyden to America, after a short stay in England, and were the founders of the Plymouth Colony.

It was William of Orange who saved the Dutch people from being utterly crushed under the grinding heel of Spain. He led an army against the cruel Alva and later against his successor, and, though defeated more than once, the brave defenders of home and liberty rallied again and again around the standard of their intrepid leader.

At the siege of Leyden (lī′den) in 1574 the people were sorely pressed and William was unable to break through the besieging army to their rescue. Then it was resolved to cut the dikes near Leyden. This was done and the sea rushed in, covering the lowlands around the city. The Spaniards had to flee for their lives, but many of them were engulfed in the angry waves. Thus the city was saved, and to commemorate the event William founded for the people the University of Leyden, which remains to this day as a noble monument to those heroic times.

The king of Spain, unable to crush William, resorted to the contemptible and cowardly means of assassination. He offered the reward of a title to nobility and a large sum of money to any one who would take the life of his unconquerable enemy.

In 1579 a new nation, the Dutch Republic, came into being. It was formed by the union of seven of the northern provinces, one of which was Holland, and the whole country is usually called by the name of this province. The leading provinces of the new-born republic chose William as their governor, and in later times when the republic became a monarchy his descendants occupied the throne. The southern provinces, including the Walloons and most of the Flemish people, submitted to Spain, were later an Austrian dominion, and finally became the kingdom of Belgium.

In 1584 the wicked proclamation of Philip II bore its fruit. William was shot by an assassin in his own house. The assassin was put to death with torture, but his family received the reward which Philip had offered.

William the Silent is an admirable figure in history. Though cut down in the prime of his life, his great work was done. The nation he had founded continued to fight for liberty until it won absolute independence of Spain. The people of Holland still regard William the Silent as the Father of his Country.

III. The Thirty Years' War, 1618–1648

320. Causes. — The last and greatest of the religious wars is known as the Thirty Years' War. Various nations were engaged in it, but the fighting was chiefly on the soil of Germany.

During the first half of the thirty-year period the war was almost purely religious. The Catholics fought to regain their old-time prestige in Germany; the Protestants fought for their existence, for religious liberty.

During the second half of the period, the war came to be chiefly political. The great nations fought for supremacy. Both the religious and the political questions were settled at the end of the war in the treaty of Westpha′lia, 1648.

The war of Charles V against the Lutherans of Germany ended in 1555 (sec. 289). The treaty of Augsburg then made was weak in two points. First, it recognized the rights of Lutherans, but not of Calvinists, who were not numerous at that time. Later the Calvinists grew to large numbers, but they had no legal right to exist in the Empire. Being persecuted, they rose in rebellion, and during the first years the war was largely between Catholics and Calvinists.

Second, in the treaty of Augsburg the Catholic party insisted on inserting a clause by which it was provided that if there were further conversions of congregations or dioceses to Lutheranism, the converts could not take their church property with them, but must leave it with the Catholic Church. The Lutherans, believing this unjust, refused to observe it.

After the war had gone on for some years and the emperor Ferdinand II had almost crushed the Calvinists, he determined to strike a blow at the Lutherans also. That is, he decided to take back the church property that they had taken in violation of the treaty of Augsburg. This roused the Lutherans and henceforth they fought side by side with the Calvinists.

321. Early Years of the War. — The long war had its beginning in Bohemia, the land of John Hus (sec. 281). Most of the Bohemians were now Protestants, and had secured from their king a decree of religious toleration. But after they had chosen the Catholic Ferdinand II as heir to the throne, Protestant worship was forbidden in some of the churches in and near Prague, the capital of Bohemia. Thereupon the Protestant leaders invaded the king's castle and threw two of his agents out of the window. They took over the government and chose Frederick, a Calvinist German prince, king of Bohemia.[1]

Frederick came to Prague and was crowned amid wild hurrahs; but his triumph was short. The armies of the emperor Ferdinand II overpowered his own and he fled from his capital by night. Bohemia was then treated with the utmost harshness by the emperor and Protestantism there was almost uprooted.

The next important Protestant leader to enter the war was Christian IV, king of Denmark. The theater of war was now transferred to the north. Christian made a brave fight, but he had no chance against the two armies sent by the emperor. One of these was commanded by Count Tilly and the other by Wallenstein (wŏl′en-stīn), a Bohemian nobleman. Christian was driven back into his own country, and in 1629 when he signed a treaty of peace he was glad to receive back the land that had been won from him. He agreed to take no further part in the war.

322. Wallenstein. — A most striking figure in the Thirty Years' War was Wallenstein. He was a great commander, but he was unscrupulous and cruel. With a large army he traversed Germany from end to end for seven years, spreading terror and desolation on all sides.

The people, Catholics and Protestants alike, cried out to the emperor for protection from this brutal devastation of their homes, and Ferdinand dismissed him.

Wallenstein had grown immensely rich by looting and plundering the helpless people. He retired to his palace at Prague, where

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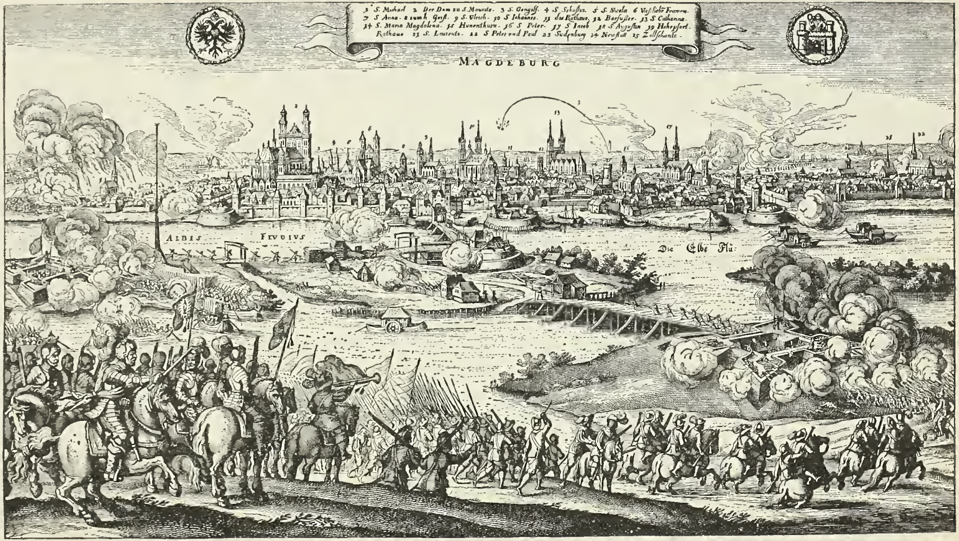
[1] It is interesting to note that this Frederick's wife was Elizabeth, daughter of James I, king of England, and that they were ancestors of the House of Hanover, the present dynasty of English kings.


1 S. Michael 2 Der Dom zu S. Mauritz. 3 S. Gangolf. 4 S. Sebastian. 5 S. Nicola 6 Vns. liebe Frawen.
7 S Anna. 8 zum h Geist. 9 S. Vlrich. 10 S Iohannes. 11 das Rathaus. 12 Barfusser. 13 S Catharina.
14 S. Maria Magdalena. 15 Hunenthurn. 16 S Peter. 17 S Iacob 18 S Augustin 19 Hohepfort.
Rathaus 21 S. Laurentz. 22 S Peter vnd Paul 23 Sudenburg 24 Newstatt 25 Zollschantz.
MAGDEBURG
ALBIS
FLUVIUS
Die Elbe Flu:

THE SIEGE OF MAGDEBURG

Engraving from a book published in 1637.

he lived like an oriental nabob. He destroyed a hundred homes to make a courtyard for his palace; he was waited on by nobles. But withal he was said to be a gloomy, distant, silent man, supremely indifferent to praise and blame, who never sought amusement and never smiled.

323. **Gustavus Adolphus, the Lion of the North.** — The greatest and most admirable character brought into world prominence by the Thirty Years' War was Gusta'vus Adol'phus, king of Sweden. For twelve years the war had continued. Germany lay bleeding and helpless. Protestantism seemed paralyzed throughout the desolated land. It was at this time that Emperor Ferdinand issued a decree to force the restoration of all the church property that the Lutherans had taken over in violation of the treaty of Augsburg. On this account and in the fear that the emperor would encroach on his own dominions, the great Swedish king determined to cross the Baltic to the aid of his brethren in the faith.

With a fond farewell to his beloved Sweden, which his eyes were to behold no more, Gustavus set out with his army and landed in Germany (July, 1630). No commander of armies ever showed higher principles or a loftier spirit. A greater contrast to Wallenstein could not be imagined. Gustavus forbade profanity in the army, forbade also the mistreatment of a captured foe. Twice every day he summoned his men to a religious service.

Count Tilly was the emperor's chief commander when the Swedish army landed in Germany. For more than a year Tilly evaded meeting this "Lion of the North." Meantime Tilly captured and destroyed the beautiful city of Magdeburg (mäg'dĕ-bo͝ork) and massacred the inhabitants to the number of 30,000.[1] The people were aroused to fury by this appalling crime, and thousands joined the army of the Swedish king. It was said that "The freedom of Germany arose like a phœnix[1] from the ashes of Magdeburg."

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[1] In the left foreground of the picture on the opposite page are Tilly's cuirassiers. Cavalrymen, each with a foot soldier behind him on his horse, are fording an arm of the Elbe River, in order to attack the city. The fortifications defending the bridge head were captured, and the town was entered by way of the island. The city had withstood a seven months' siege by Wallenstein the preceding year, but at this time the cathedral and about 100 houses alone escaped destruction.

In the fall of 1631 the two great generals met in the battle of Breitenfeld (brī'ten-fĕlt), and Tilly was defeated. Again they met the following April and Tilly was defeated and slain. Gustavus was now master of Germany. Emperor Ferdinand was in despair. He decided to play his last card. He recalled Wallenstein.

324. The Battle of Lützen. — Wallenstein's terms on reentering the war were humiliating to the emperor, but were accepted. Neither he nor the Swedish king had ever been defeated. After sparring for some months they came together at Lützen (lüt'sen), where one of the memorable world battles was fought (November, 1632). The Swedes won a decisive victory, but at great cost. Their king and commander was killed while leading a cavalry charge.

Gustavus Adolphus was the greatest commander of his age, and one of the noblest characters in history. Two things the Swedish king introduced in warfare which have been adopted by the modern world; the establishing of a base of supplies for an army, thus obviating the barbarous method of living off the country; and the humane treatment of a captured enemy. What might have been the outcome had he lived through the war is only conjecture. As it was, it seems certain that without him Protestantism in Germany would have perished. From the final blow at Lützen the emperor never recovered, and the prestige of the House of Hapsburg was permanently crippled.

Fearing the ambitions of Wallenstein, Ferdinand again dismissed him and put a price on his head, which resulted in his assassination in 1634.

325. France and the Treaty of Westphalia. — For many years longer the dreadful war continued; the last period was

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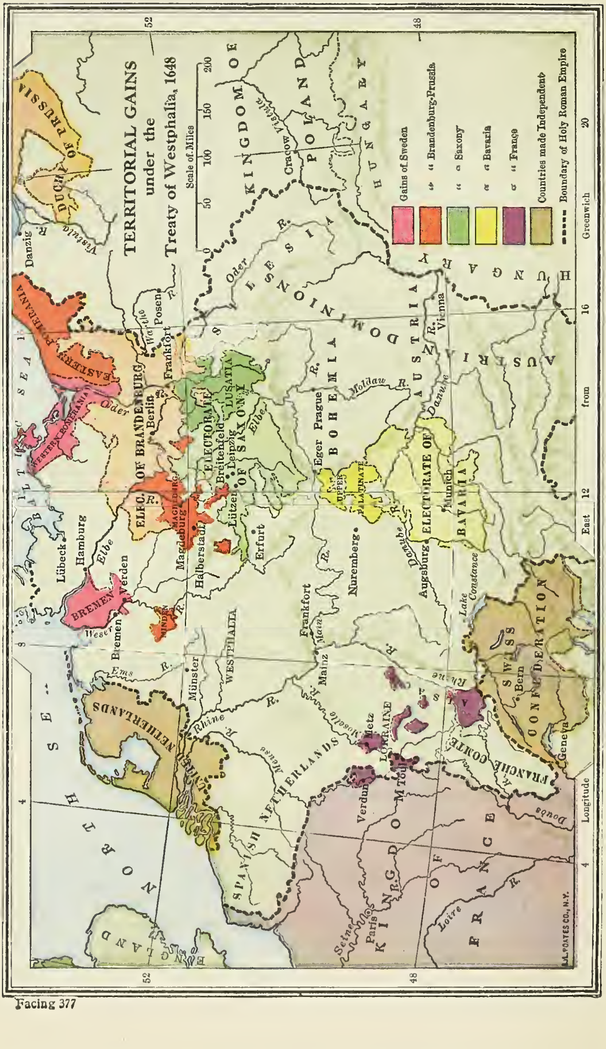
[1] According to a medieval fable, the phœnix was a bird that lived in Arabia; after a long life it was believed to burn itself by fire, and then to rise in renewed youth from its own ashes.



TERRITORIAL GAINS
under the
Treaty of Westphalia, 1648

Scale of Miles 0 50 100 150 200

Gains of Sweden
" " Brandenburg-Prussia
" " Saxony
" " Bavaria
" " France
Countries made Independent
Boundary of Holy Roman Empire

NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
ENGLAND
DUCHY OF PRUSSIA
Danzig
Vistula R.
EASTERN POMERANIA
WESTERN POMERANIA
ELEC. OF BRANDENBURG
Berlin
Frankfort
Oder R.
Posen
Warthe R.
Lübeck
Hamburg
Elbe
BREMEN
Bremen
Verden
Weser
MINDEN
MAGDEBURG
Magdeburg
Halberstadt
Lützen
Leipzig
Breitenfeld
ELECTORATE OF SAXONY
LUSATIA
Erfurt
UNITED NETHERLANDS
Ems R.
Münster
WESTPHALIA
Rhine R.
Frankfort
Main
Mainz
Nuremberg
UPPER PALATINATE
Eger
Prague
BOHEMIA
Moldau R.
SILESIA
KINGDOM OF POLAND
Cracow
Vistula
HUNGARY
AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS
Vienna
Danube R.
ELECTORATE OF BAVARIA
Munich
Augsburg
Lake Constance
SWISS CONFEDERATION
Bern
Geneva
FRANCHE COMTÉ
Doubs
LORRAINE
Metz
Toul
Verdun
SPANISH NETHERLANDS
Meuse
Moselle R.
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Paris
Seine
Loire R.
52
48
4
8
12
16
20
Longitude East from Greenwich
A. Hoen & Co. N.Y.

Facing 377

known as the French period, as the preceding was called the Swedish period. The leading figure was now Richelieu, the great French minister (sec. 316). Catholic though he was, he sent his armies to fight for the Protestant cause. His object was to cripple the House of Hapsburg and to make France the leading nation of Europe. He had aided Gustavus Adolphus with large sums of money, and now when that intrepid leader was gone, he sent French armies to join those of Sweden. It is needless for us to follow the contest further. The French-Swedish armies were generally successful; the emperor was greatly weakened; and Germany became a scene of desolation and ruin.

Nearly half the population of Germany had perished. Thousands of churches and schools were destroyed. Whole districts were made desolate. A writer of the time says that one might travel forty miles and scarcely see a human being. More than a century passed before Germany recovered from the awful ruin and devastation of this cruel war.

Both sides were weary and exhausted and after years of effort to bring about peace it came at last with the treaty of Westphalia, 1648. By this treaty some important political changes were made. Sweden received extensive lands along the Baltic and North seas; France received Alsace; Holland (the United Netherlands) and Switzerland (the Swiss Confederation) were recognized as independent nations. The Emperor's power was weakened except in Austria, and the German states became almost independent, while France became the leading power in Europe.

Far greater in importance was the religious settlement. In brief it was simply this: Catholic, Lutheran, and Calvinist princes were recognized as having equal rights and privileges in the Empire, and each was left free to impose his own faith on his people. The pope refused to ratify the treaty and pronounced null and void all concessions to the Protestants. But the war-weary nations refused to heed and the treaty went into effect.

Since the treaty of Westphalia the world has had no war based on differences in religion. The principle of toleration has spread through all countries and the adherents of the various faiths have learned to respect one another. The treaty of Westphalia is a landmark in the history of Europe.

Questions and Topics. — I. Why were there religious wars in Germany, France, and the Netherlands and not in England, Scotland, Scandinavia, Spain, and Italy? Name the three notable religious wars. Why was the Edict of Nantes issued and by whom? In what respect was it defective? Write an essay on Cardinal Richelieu. What were his three great self-imposed tasks? How did he treat the Protestants after he had subdued them?

II. How did the Netherlands become a possession of Spain? Would the transfer of a people to a foreign yoke on such grounds be possible in our time? Give an estimate of the life and achievements of William the Silent.

III. For what did each side contend in the Thirty Years' War? What were the defects of the treaty of Augsburg of 1555? Who were the Calvinists as compared with the Lutherans? Give an account of the opening of the war. Who was Wallenstein? Why did Gustavus Adolphus enter the war? Why is the battle of Lützen considered an important historic event? Why did the Catholic Cardinal Richelieu aid the Protestants in the war? What was the French period and why so called? Why is the treaty of Westphalia a landmark in history? What is a religious war as compared with a political war? with an economic war? with a dynastic war? Can you name one of each kind?

Events and Dates. — Huguenot religious wars in France, 1562–1598. Edict of Nantes, 1598. Richelieu, died 1642. Birth of the Dutch Republic, 1579. Death of William the Silent, 1584. The Thirty Years' War, 1618–1648. Battle of Lützen and death of Gustavus Adolphus, 1632. Treaty of Westphalia, 1648.

For Further Reading. — Young, *A History of the Netherlands.* Harrison, *William the Silent.* Stevens, *Gustavus Adolphus.* Thompson, *Wars of Religion in France.* Hayes, *History of Modern Europe*, Vol. I. Robinson, *Readings in Modern European History*, Vol. II. Perkins, *Richelieu and the Growth of French Power.* Gardiner, *The Thirty Years' War* (Epoch series). Schiller, *Thirty Years' War* (in English), an interesting narrative, but uncritical.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE STUARTS AND THE PURITANS IN ENGLAND

I. The Reign of James I (1603–1625)

326. King James. — On the death of Elizabeth in 1603 the Tudor dynasty became extinct, and for the next hundred years the Stuart dynasty occupied the English throne. The first of the Stuart kings was James I, a descendant of Henry VII, whose daughter Margaret had married James Stuart, king of Scotland. Of this couple James I was the great-grandson, and he was the son of Mary Queen of Scots (sec. 309). He became king of Scotland as James VI, when only a year old, but as England had not had a king of that name, he became James I of England. He continued king of both countries until the end of his life, and was succeeded in both by the same heir. Thus the crowns of England and Scotland were united, but for more than a hundred years each had its own parliament and separate government.

James was ill fitted for the great business that devolved upon him as king of England. His life had been spent among the turbulent Scotch nobles, whom he could not manage. He was ungainly in appearance and uncouth in manners. He was irritable and quick-tempered and sometimes violent when angry. He loved to parade his learning and was called " the wisest fool in Christendom." James was kind-hearted and not a tyrant, but as a monarch he was weak, and the progress that England made during his reign was not due to him. Scarcely had he arrived in England when he made a bad impression on his new subjects by prating of the " divine right " of kings and declaring it seditious for subjects to dispute what a king may do.

327. James and the Puritans. — The Puritans were a large and growing class in England who contended that the Church of

England was not sufficiently reformed and had retained too many of the Catholic practices. Many of the Puritans refused to conform with the church's requirements and were called nonconformists; others separated from it entirely and were called sep′aratists.

The Puritans hoped for much from the new king. While he was on his way to London they met him and presented a great petition, said to have been signed by a thousand ministers, praying for certain reforms in the church.

In consequence James arranged for the "Hampton Court Conference," which met the following January.[1] The king himself presided. The Puritans soon discovered that they could expect no favors from him. Brought up in the midst of the Scotch Presbyterians, he despised Presbyterianism because of its independence, declaring that it agreed with monarchy as God with the devil. Of the Puritans he said, "I will make them conform themselves, or else I will harry them out of the land." It was this harsh attitude that drove the Pilgrim Fathers to Holland and later to the shores of Massachusetts.

One memorable thing was done by this conference at Hampton Court. It was arranged that a new English translation of the Bible be made by the leading scholars of England. The result was the "authorized version" of 1611, which has since been used by hundreds of millions of people.

328. James and the Catholics; Gunpowder Plot. — The Catholics expected much from this son of Mary Stuart who had been faithful to their church to the day of her death. James was milder toward them than toward the Puritans; and was accused of leaning toward Rome. The king chafed under the accusation and, moreover, some of the leading priests were turbulent. James therefore issued a decree banishing priests, and Parliament revived the penal laws of Elizabeth against them.

These things led to the Gunpowder Plot, in 1605. The chief of this dangerous conspiracy was Robert Catesby. Among his associates was Guy Fawkes. They hired a house with a cellar extending under the Parliament building. Here they secretly stored twenty barrels of gunpowder, and covered them with billets of wood and iron bars. The purpose was to blow up the two houses of Parliament, together with the king and his eldest son, on the opening of the session in November. A general uprising of the Catholics and a setting up of a new government was to be the next act in the drama.

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[1] This conference was so named from the palace where it was held, a few miles from London.

Hampton Court Palace

This, the largest royal palace in Great Britain, was founded in 1515 by Cardinal Wolsey, who later presented it to Henry VIII. It stands on the bank of the Thames near London. It was occupied at various times by the Stuarts, Cromwell, and William III. It no longer serves as a royal residence, but more than 800 of its 1000 rooms are occupied by aristocratic pensioners of the crown. Its galleries contain a fine collection of paintings, including portraits of the so-called "Hampton Court beauties," ladies of the court of William and Mary.

But the secret leaked out, a search was made, and Guy Fawkes was arrested in the cellar while keeping guard over the powder. He and Catesby and others in the plot suffered death, and England for two hundred years celebrated annually with bonfires and rejoicing the discovery of the Gunpowder Plot.

The Catholic people as a whole could not of course have been guilty of this dastardly deed, but they had to bear the blame. Parliament made very severe laws against them and for a century they did not recover from the odium of the murderous conspiracy.

329. King James and his Parliaments. — All through the period of the Stuart dynasty there was friction between the sovereign and Parliament, at times very serious. Two or three causes may be given for this contest. First, the Stuarts attempted to govern the country with an iron hand, as the Tudors had done, but they lacked the ability and the tact to do so. Second, the people of England were more enlightened and more jealous of their liberties. If a third be given, it may be found in the assumption by King James of high prerogatives at the start, of the divine right of kings, of a contemptuous attitude toward Parliament, disgusting and alienating many of the members.

The century-long contest brought constant quarrelings with the Stuart kings, and it brought civil war. The final result, as we shall see, was a complete triumph of Parliament.

At the first session of the reign, in March, 1604, King James declared that the House of Commons derived all its privileges from him, to which the answer was made that he had been greatly wronged by misinformation, that its privileges were a lawful inheritance and not a gift from the sovereign.

From the beginning James was greatly hampered by lack of money. The public expenditures exceeded the revenues. He badgered Parliament for more and more money. It was granted grudgingly or not at all. One Parliament debated "grievances" for two months without passing a measure and was dissolved. On one occasion James said to a friend that he was surprised that his ancestors should have permitted such an institution as Parliament to come into existence, but supposed that he would have to put up with it.

King James attempted to raise money in various ways, one of which was to sell peerages at 10,000 pounds apiece; but there were few purchasers. Worn out at last with the gout, with his quarrels with Parliament, with the failure of nearly all his projects, the aged king passed away in March, 1625, and was succeeded by his son Charles.

330. Other Events of the Reign. — As every American reader knows, the first permanent English settlement in Virginia was made but four years after James's accession and was called after his name. In 1620 the Pilgrim Fathers landed at Plymouth Rock and they with later settlers laid the foundations of Massachusetts.

One year after the founding of Jamestown the great English poet John Milton was born, and the year 1616 marks the death of Shakespeare.

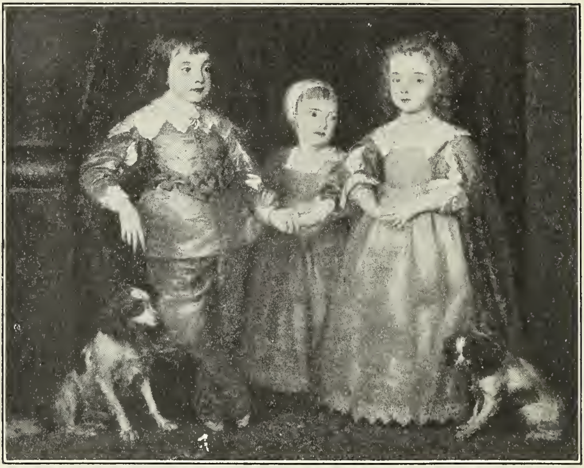
In one of his projects King James was in advance of his age. He worked for an organic union between England and Scotland, but the opposition could not be overcome. The project hung fire for a hundred years and was not consummated until 1707, when the separate parliaments and governments of the two countries were united, and the combined kingdom was called Great Britain.

II. Charles I and the Civil War, 1625–1649

331. The Petition of Right. — Young, handsome, of proud and kingly bearing, Charles came to the throne amidst the plaudits of the multitude. His father had come to England a stranger; Charles had been brought up among the people and knew their wants and their tastes. His opportunity for success was greater than that of his father. His failure also was greater.

King Charles was not without ability, but he was obstinate, secretive, and tactless. His attitude toward the Puritans was heartless. If James scourged them with whips, Charles scourged them with scorpions.

Three Parliaments Charles called into existence within the first four years. None of them paid him homage or bowed to his will. He was at war with both France and Spain. He sent out several expeditions, but as Parliament refused to grant supplies, all ended in failure. Charles then resorted to forced loans.



Children of Charles I

Portrait by Van Dyck, in Windsor Castle. The three children are the Prince of Wales, later King Charles II; the Duke of York, afterwards King James II; and the Princess Mary, later mother of the Prince of Orange, King William III. Van Dyck, famed for elegance and refinement as an artist, was King Charles's court painter. He left many pictures of the royal family, which are among the great portraits of the world.

He levied heavy taxes on individuals and imprisoned those who refused to pay.

In 1628 Parliament framed a bill setting forth the rights of the people similar to the charter which was forced on King John at Runnymede in 1215 (sec. 237). It is known as the Petition of Right. By this petition it is guaranteed that no English freeman shall be compelled to make forced loans, nor to yield any gift or tax without the consent of Parliament; also that no man shall be imprisoned or put to death except in accordance with the laws of the land.

This document is regarded as second only to the Magna Charta as a bulwark of English liberty. The king tried to avoid signing it, but yielded because the temper of the nation was such that a refusal might have brought serious consequences. Even then he could not bend Parliament to his will. He thereupon dismissed it and for eleven years managed affairs as best he could without a Parliament.

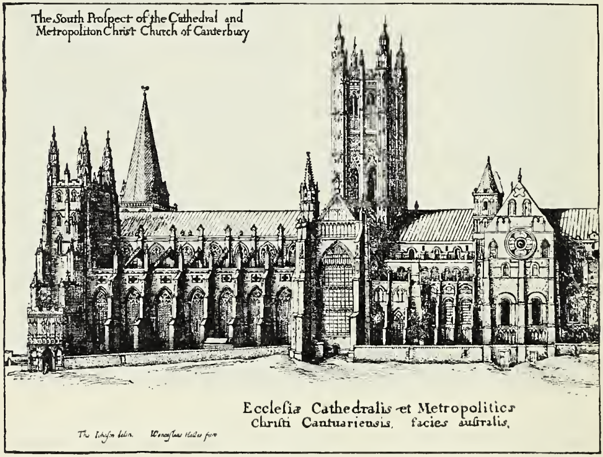
332. **Laud and Wentworth.** — King Charles was peculiarly unfortunate in the choice of his ministers. Utterly wanting as the king was in tact and in ability to understand his people, he might have neutralized this defect by choosing as his advisers men of a more compromising spirit. This he did not do. He chose as his chief advisers two men who were as intolerant and tactless as himself.

In 1628 Thomas Wentworth (later the Earl of Strafford) became the royal favorite and chief minister of state. Wentworth had been a leader in Parliament and was one of the framers of the Petition of Right. He now went over to the side of the king and served him faithfully to the end.

William Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, an extreme high churchman and hater of the Puritans, became Charles's religious leader and manager of the religious affairs of the nation. These two men together with their king governed the nation for nearly a full decade. None of them was bad at heart, or desirous of trampling the rights of the people under foot. But they were singularly alike in their blindness to the signs of the times, their inability to understand the temper of the people. Slowly but steadily they alienated the people until there was scarcely a bond of sympathy remaining.

Wentworth as governor of Ireland did "thorough" work, as he termed it. He badgered the Irish Parliament and imprisoned jurymen for not deciding cases as he wished. He restored order and subdued the people; but also he incurred their undying hatred.

Archbishop Laud believed Puritanism to be an evil that should be suppressed by force. He was doubtless sincere, but he could not understand the Puritan conscience, nor had he patience with any one who differed with him. The Puritans objected to the "popish" ceremonies of the Church of England, and they were horrified when Laud issued a proclamation permitting Sunday amusements. The clergy were ordered to read this decree in their churches, but many of them refused. For this they were persecuted and punished. No one was put to death, but many writers and divines had their ears cut off and served long terms in prison. Twenty thousand of the Puritans fled to Massachusetts to escape the persecutions of Laud.


The South Proſpect of the Cathedral and
Metropolitan Christ Church of Canterbury
Eccleſiæ Cathedralis et Metropoliticæ
Chriſti Cantuarienſis, facies auſtralis,

Canterbury Cathedral

The seat of the archbishops of Canterbury, primates of England, from the time of Saint Augustine in 597. The present cathedral dates from the eleventh century and is a fine example of English Gothic architecture. It was to this shrine that Chaucer's company made their pilgrimage (sec. 262). The old archbishop's palace, near by, was destroyed by the Puritans during the primacy of Archbishop Laud.

333. John Hampden and the Ship Money. — King Charles was hard pressed for money and he devised various means of raising it. He collected poundage and tonnage, that is, taxes on ships entering British ports; he sold knighthoods and monopolies. A monopoly was the exclusive right to trade in a certain article; for example, the sole right to sell tobacco in a certain city or county or in the whole kingdom. At length he revived an old practice of collecting ship money. In the past it was the custom to require the coast cities to furnish ships or money in time of danger from the sea. Charles extended this requirement to the whole country, even in times of peace. The tax was unpopular. It seemed as if the king had found a way to tax the people permanently without the consent of Parliament, which was contrary to law and custom. But most of the people paid the tax in sullen submission. John Hampden proved an exception.

John Hampden was a wealthy country squire of an independent spirit. When the collector came to him for the tax, he refused to pay it, though it was but twenty shillings. He was put on trial in the king's court and the case was made a test case. It was decided in favor of the king, seven of the twelve judges voting for him. But the cause of the king was injured far more than it was benefited by the trial, for Hampden's lawyers showed clearly that the tax was illegal. And Hampden became a popular hero.

334. The Long Parliament.— After the Hampden trial conditions grew steadily worse. The king and his archbishop were utterly unyielding. A high court called the Star Chamber decided great questions of state arbitrarily in defiance of the jury system; another called the Court of High Commission dealt relentlessly with matters of the church. The people were not consulted. Discontent was widespread. The king, owing to a short war with his Scotch subjects, was paralyzed for want of money, and he called a Parliament to meet in 1640. As it did not grant him money, he dismissed it and called for the election of another Parliament. This met late in 1640 and came to be known as the Long Parliament, the most famous in English history.

The leader was John Pym, a statesman of high order, whose influence was so great that he was called " King Pym " by his enemies. Next to him stood the intrepid John Hampden of ship money fame. But in the years to come both of these men were overshadowed by another member, a cousin of Hampden's, who was destined to become the strongest man of his time and one of the most famous in English history — Oliver Cromwell.

The Long Parliament proved far more hostile to the king than any that had preceded it. Charles had no choice but to bow to its will. Parliament proceeded to business in a most drastic manner. It set out to transfer the government of the nation from the hands of the king to itself.

It abolished the Star Chamber and the Court of High Commission, and set free their victims from prison. It passed the Triennial Bill, providing that the intervals between Parliaments should never exceed three years. It pronounced ship money illegal and annulled the judgment against Hampden. It impeached the Earl of Strafford (Wentworth) and condemned him to death. Charles had promised Strafford that in no case should he be punished, but when the angry crowd gathered without, the helpless monarch signed the death warrant of his nearest friend, declaring that Strafford's condition was happier than his own. The fallen minister went to the scaffold exclaiming bitterly, " Put not your trust in princes." Even the aged Archbishop Laud was impeached and, after languishing for a time in prison, was dragged forth to have his hoary head severed from his body.

On the same day on which the unhappy king signed the death warrant of Strafford he put his name to another bill which proved his undoing, which gave the victory to his enemies at last, and compassed his own downfall with the loss of his kingdom and his life. The bill provided that the existing Parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent.

The time soon came when divisions over the religious question began to appear in Parliament. Here would have been Charles's opportunity to dissolve it and trust to the election of a more favorable one; but the fatal signature to the bill that it should not be dissolved without its own consent stood in the way.

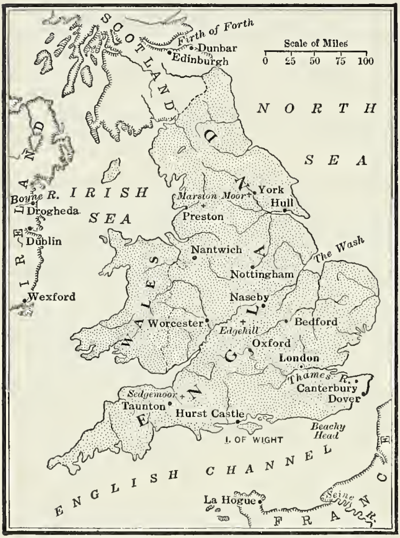
335. **Drifting toward War.** — Nevertheless, Charles took heart and began to plot for the recovery of his lost power. By a close vote Parliament passed the Grand Remonstrance, setting forth the misgovernment of the king from the beginning of his reign and also the demands of Parliament upon him. Cromwell declared that if it had not passed, he would have left England next day never to return.

Charles rejected the Grand Remonstrance and attempted to arrest for treason five of the leading members of Parliament, including Pym and Hampden. With a body of armed men the king went to the House of Commons; but the men had escaped and the attempt failed.

The queen, a sister of the king of France, was unyielding and more obstinate even than the king. When he hesitated about arresting the five men, she said, "Go, you coward, and drag those rogues out by the ears." After exacting from her husband a promise that he would stay and fight it out to the bitter end, she escaped to the Continent. He did stay to fight it out and he fought a losing game. The people were now divided into two hostile camps. The king's party were called Cavaliers (kav-a-lērz′), meaning horsemen; the Puritan party, from their close-cropped hair, were called Roundheads. There was no longer hope of compromise. The country was drifting into civil war.

336. **The Civil War.** — Open war began in November, 1642, and continued at intervals for more than six years. The north and west of England, the poorer and less progressive parts, were with the king, while the east and south, including London, took the side of Parliament. The king attempted to rouse the Irish in his behalf and to secure the help of the Continent, but met with little success.

Parliament courted the Scots and made an agreement with them. The Scots were to furnish troops, and Scotch Presbyterianism was to prevail in England. For a short time the Presbyterians had control of Parliament and it was then that the West'minster Confession was framed (1643), which still remains the distinctive Presbyterian creed.


Firth of Forth
Dunbar
Edinburgh
Scale of Miles
0 25 50 75 100
SCOTLAND
NORTH SEA
IRELAND
Boyne R.
Drogheda
Dublin
Wexford
IRISH SEA
Marston Moor
York
Hull
Preston
Nantwich
Nottingham
The Wash
WALES
Naseby
Worcester
Edgehill
Bedford
Oxford
London
ENGLAND
Thames R.
Canterbury
Dover
Sedgemoor
Taunton
Hurst Castle
Beachy Head
I. OF WIGHT
ENGLISH CHANNEL
La Hogue
Seine R.
FRANCE

England in the Civil War (1642)

Parliament had control of the arsenals and the navy, and almost from the first the war went against the king. In 1643 the parliamentary party suffered great loss in the deaths of Pym and Hampden, but Cromwell soon assumed the leadership and became the most conspicuous figure in the war.

Cromwell organized a body of cavalry called "Ironsides," composed of men who were ready to brave all dangers at the word of their commander. Cromwell was fervently religious and he had the power to electrify the army with his own spirit. The leader on the king's side was his nephew, Prince Rupert, a courageous leader, but rash and reckless in battle.

The first great battle of the war was at Marston Moor, in July, 1644, where Rupert and the royalist army were completely defeated by Cromwell. The following year another battle was fought at Naseby (nāz'bĭ) in which Cromwell won a still more signal victory, almost annihilating the king's army. Charles later fled to Scotland and threw himself on the mercy of the Scots; but they delivered him over to the English. Both Parliament and the army tried to negotiate with him. They were ready to forget the past, to begin over again, if the king would only agree to rule in accordance with law. But Charles was unbending; he would yield nothing; he even stirred up another war while a prisoner.

337. Execution of the King (1649). — The leaders of the army were now convinced that nothing but the death of the king would bring tranquillity to the kingdom. They soon put down the new rebellion and "purged" Parliament of the members favorable to the king.[1] The remaining members, called the Rump Parliament, then proceeded to bring the king to trial. It created a High Court of Justice.

Before this court Charles refused to plead, denying its right to try him. It pronounced him guilty and condemned him to death as "a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy." The king faced death with Christian courage. He was sent to the scaffold and beheaded on the 30th of January, 1649, the year after the close of the Thirty Years' War.

It was not really the people of England who put their king to death, nor even Parliament. It was the army, and the army was controlled by Oliver Cromwell, who soon became the master of England.

III. OLIVER CROMWELL AND THE COMMONWEALTH

338. Troubles of the New Republic. — The English republic or Commonwealth had a thorny road to travel. The beheading of the king had sent a shiver of horror throughout the country and over all Europe. A majority of the people in England did not approve of the extreme action of the regicides. Ireland

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[1] This was called "Pride's Purge," because Colonel Pride, with a body of armed men, drove the undesirable members out.

and Scotland rose in revolt and were encouraged by the royal party of England.

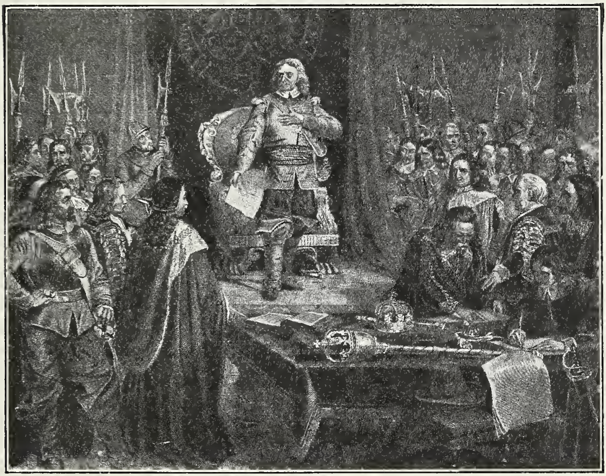
Cromwell led his army into Ireland and devastated the island from end to end. At Drogheda (drŏ'he-da) and Wexford he put the captured garrisons to death without mercy, declaring that it was necessary in order to prevent an invasion of England. Later he went into Scotland and conquered every force that came against him. The Scots had proclaimed Prince Charles, son of the beheaded king, as their sovereign. Charles had landed in Scotland, and though he despised Presbyterianism, he promised to force it on England if the Scots would support him. They did so with great bravery, but when their army had been crushed by Cromwell at Worcester (wo͝os'ter) in September, 1651, Charles lost all hope and became a fugitive. After many strange adventures, he escaped in disguise to France.

Meantime the Rump Parliament had abolished the office of king and the House of Lords. A council of state was appointed to carry on the government, but within a few years the whole governing power of the nation came to be centered in the hands of one man.

339. Cromwell Becomes Lord Protector. — Long years had the country been distracted with civil war and political strife: its pressing need was a permanent and stable government. Cromwell and his army desired the selection of a new Parliament, but the old Rump Parliament held on and even planned to perpetuate its power. Cromwell then lost all patience and determined to make an end to their trifling. Entering the House one day in April, 1653, with a band of soldiers in waiting, Cromwell in an outburst of passion turned the members out of doors.

" Come, come," he cried, " I will put an end to your prating. You are no Parliament, I say you are no Parliament. I will put an end to your sitting. Call them in, call them in." Thereupon the sergeant opened the doors and two files of musketeers entered the House. In a few minutes the room was empty and Oliver Cromwell was master of the kingdom.

A "Parliament," or assembly, was appointed, but it soon adjourned. Cromwell's friends then adopted a constitution called the Instrument of Government. This constitution was in force only a few years. It made Cromwell Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland, with greater power than Charles I had ever wielded.



Cromwell Refusing the Crown

"I cannot undertake this government with that title of King; and that is my answer to this great and weighty business," was Cromwell's reply.

340. The Reign of Cromwell. — A new Parliament was elected, but Cromwell soon dismissed it. The government was practically left in the hands of the Lord Protector, who governed by means of the army. Another Parliament offered Cromwell the crown as hereditary king, but he declined the title.

In foreign relations the reign of Cromwell was eminently successful. A war with the Dutch and another with Spain were carried to triumphant results. Not since the days of Elizabeth had the British name been so respected. But at home the great Protector was less successful. His weakness lay in the fact that he governed the country by force and never won the hearts of the masses of the people. His last years were embittered by conspiracies and uprisings against him. He remembered the happy rural life on his estate in earlier years and bitterly declared that it was easier to keep sheep than to govern men. So fearful was he of assassination that he wore under his clothes a vest of steel and seldom slept in the same room two successive nights. Cromwell met all duties with supreme courage, but his health gave way under the crushing burden and he died on September 3, 1658.

Richard Cromwell, son of the Lord Protector, succeeded his father in the great office; but Richard had not inherited his father's genius. Feeling himself incapable, he resigned in May, 1659. The people were heartily weary by this time of their sorry experiment in establishing a republic, and they were ready to recall to the vacant throne the exiled son of their beheaded king.

341. Estimate of Cromwell. — One of the strongest among the sons of men was Oliver Cromwell. Through the force of circumstances not of his own making he found himself at the head of a great government. The power that he wielded came to him in an illegal way; but there is no reason to believe that he cherished personal selfish ambitions. Doubtless he would have preferred to spare the life of the king and to remain himself in obscurity had he been convinced that his country would not thereby suffer.

Cromwell reminds us in some respects of the great Swedish king who had fallen at Lützen but a few years before the English civil war began (sec. 324). Both Gustavus Adolphus and Cromwell were supremely successful in commanding armies; both were statesmen as well as soldiers, both were men of high personal character, devoid of selfish ambition, and were actuated by lofty religious motives. In one respect Gustavus Adolphus surpassed the great Englishman: he refused to permit the massacre of a captured enemy.

In his ideas of religious liberty Cromwell was far in advance of his age. He believed in individual freedom of conscience. At the close of the Thirty Years' War it was recognized by Catholics and Protestants that a nation, but not the individual, had the right to choose its religion (sec. 325). The Christian world still clung to the belief that the people of any one country should conform in religious worship and belief. The broad daylight of individual liberty of conscience, such as we now enjoy, was still far in the future. Cromwell was one of the few men of his time to anticipate the conditions of to-day.

IV. The Restoration and the Revolution

342. The King and Court of the Restoration. — Amid the cheers and shouts of the people Charles II, in May, 1660, entered the streets of London like a conqueror. Charles was a man of much ability, but he was easy-going, indolent, and immoral. The people of England had long been under the austere, strait-jacket control of Puritanism. The pendulum now swung in the opposite direction. The people imitated their "Merry Monarch," as Charles was called, and a season of levity and immorality followed such as never had been known in the history of the country.

It is true that there were many faithful Puritans remaining. The great Puritan poet, John Milton, at this period wrote *Paradise Lost*, and John Bunyan, from a prison cell, produced *The Pilgrim's Progress.* But the way of the dissenters — those who did not conform to the worship of the established Church of England — was made a hard one. Stringent laws were passed against them. Two thousand dissenting ministers were turned out of their churches and forbidden to hold religious assemblies. Catholics and dissenting Protestants were prohibited from holding municipal office, and the ejected ministers were not even permitted to live in the towns. Greatest of all was the persecution of the new-born sect known as Friends or Quakers, founded by George Fox (1624–1691).

The Episcopal Church was at this time reëstablished as the state church of England, and so it has since remained.

343. **Charles II and his Parliament.** — With the collapse of the Cromwellian government it seemed that the whole republican experiment had been a failure. But such was not the case. It is true that the written constitution and the Commonwealth had passed away, but the principle of control by Parliament was permanently established. From that time no British monarch ever attempted to exercise absolute power, to get along without a Parliament, or to tax the people without the consent of Parliament.

The Parliament elected in 1661, known as the Cavalier Parliament, was harsh toward the Puritans and very favorable to the king, but it did not yield the rights established by the civil war and the Commonwealth. So agreeable did Charles find this Parliament that he kept it in existence for eighteen years. When serious differences arose the king tactfully yielded the point, declaring that he did not wish to go on his travels again. With his later Parliaments he had some trouble.

One measure enacted in this reign is of permanent and world-wide interest. It is the Habeas Corpus Act (1679): its purpose was to protect the people from arbitrary imprisonment.

The English had two short wars with the Dutch during this reign. An important result of the struggle was that England acquired the Dutch colony New Netherland, which was then named New York after the king's brother James, Duke of York.

Definite political parties first arose in England in the latter part of the reign of Charles II. The heir to the throne was James, the king's brother. But as James was an avowed Catholic, and as great numbers of the people were bitterly opposed to having a Catholic sovereign, a proposed law known as the Exclusion Bill was introduced into Parliament to bar him from the throne.

The people were divided on this question. Those favoring it were called Whigs and those opposing were called Tories. The bill was not passed, but the parties continued. The Tories favored more power to the king and less to the people. The Whigs stood for larger powers to the Parliament and more liberties to the people.

344. **The Reign of James II.** — Charles II died in 1685 after a reign of twenty-five years. His brother James II quietly succeeded to the throne, no open protest being made even by those who had favored the Exclusion Bill. James had two daughters, Mary and Anne, who were the next heirs to the throne. As both were Protestants and both were married to Protestant husbands, and as the king was past middle age, the people felt that they needed only to wait a few years until the crown would again revert to Protestant hands.

Herein they miscalculated. James was very aggressive in the matter of furthering his religion, and he was a firm believer in the "divine right" of kings, which meant that kings were superior to the law. But he was as tactless as his father, Charles I, had been. A little prudence would have taught him to move cautiously, knowing as he must have known that a great majority of his subjects were profoundly opposed to his religion. But the king was a stranger to prudence. He suspended the laws of the land and substituted his own will. He filled various offices with his fellow-Catholics contrary to law.

345. **The Revolution of 1688.** — At length the famous trial of the Seven Bishops opened the king's eyes; it came about in this way. James issued a "declaration of indulgence," suspending all penalties against Catholics and Dissenters, and ordered it read in the churches. Many of the clergy refused. Seven bishops wrote out their reasons and respectfully presented the document to their king. He was insulted with their audacity. "It is a standard of rebellion," snapped the monarch, and he ordered that the bishops be put on trial. London was greatly excited over the trial (June, 1688). The sympathies of practi-

cally all the people were with the bishops. When they were acquitted, the cheers that rent the air spread to the army — the army that James had built up for his own protection — and the soldiers joined in the cheering. The king heard it and asked what it meant. "Oh, nothing," was the answer, "except that the soldiers are glad that the bishops are acquitted." "Do you call that nothing?" asked the king, who realized that he could no longer rely on the army.[1]

About this time a son was born to King James and his second wife. The news of the birth of an heir who would take precedence over the king's Protestant daughters spread consternation to all parts of the country, for now it seemed that the hope of an early Protestant succession would be crushed. This news, with the affair of the bishops, brought a speedy crisis. The leading Whigs and Tories appealed secretly to William of Orange, stadholder (president) of Holland and husband of Mary, James's eldest daughter, to come and save them from the tyranny of their king. William responded and in November he landed in England with an army. He was received with wild demonstrations. The specially trained soldiers that James sent against him refused to fight, and the wretched king, utterly broken in spirit at last, saw that his people had forsaken him. He escaped from the kingdom by crossing the Channel into France.

V. WILLIAM AND MARY

346. The Joint Sovereigns. — Mary, not William, was the heir to the crown. But William declared that if he was not made joint sovereign he would return to Holland, as he did not wish to be merely his wife's "gentleman usher." Now William was the ablest statesman of his time, and England greatly needed him at this moment. When, therefore, Mary declared her delight at having her husband reign with her, Parliament elected them king and queen; they were William III and Mary II.

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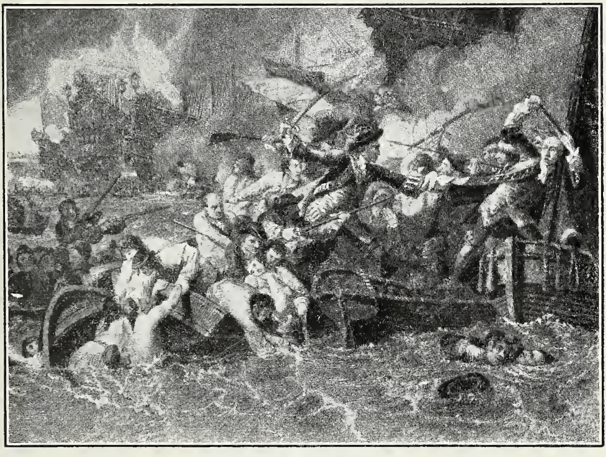
[1] It is interesting to note that one of the seven bishops was Bishop Ken, author of the world-famous doxology beginning, "Praise God from whom all blessings flow."

The two reigned together until five years later, when Mary died and left William sole ruler.

Scotland readily accepted the new sovereigns, but Catholic Ireland still clung to the fugitive king. James took courage and landed in Ireland with an army. But he was defeated by William in the battle of the Boyne (July 1, 1690), and the victory is celebrated to this day by "Orangemen" (Protestant Irishmen so called from William of Orange) in various parts of the world.

Two years later Louis XIV of France made another attempt to restore James II to the English throne. A large French fleet tried to invade England but was met by the English fleet and defeated in May, 1692, off La Hogue (ōg).



BATTLE OF LA HOGUE

After an engraving from a painting by Benjamin West, an American artist. Mary and the English court were so delighted over the victory that the queen sent 30,000 pounds to be distributed among the victorious sailors, on their return home.

347. Famous Acts of Parliament. — In 1689 was adopted the Bill of Rights. This has been called the "third great document in the Bible of English Liberties," the other two being the Magna Charta (1215) and the Petition of Right (1628). The Bill of Rights enumerated some of the high-handed, illegal acts of the reign of James and denied such powers to future sovereigns. It also solemnly excluded Roman Catholics from the throne.

The Toleration Act also was passed in 1689. By this law dissenting Protestants (Presbyterians, Baptists, Congregationalists, Quakers, etc.) were granted the right of public worship, although the Episcopal Church remained, as before, the established church, supported by public taxation. The law forbidding dissenters to hold office remained in force for many years after this. But the Toleration Act was a very important step. English law thus for the first time granted the right of holding public services to more than one form of religion at the same time.

The Triennial Act provided that Parliament should be elected for not more than three years.[1] An American Congress or state legislature always serves the full time for which it is elected. A British Parliament, on the other hand, may be dissolved at any time, but it cannot continue beyond the legal time.

One of the most important laws of Parliament belonging to this period was the Act of Settlement of 1701. By this act it was provided that in case of the death of William and of Mary's sister Anne without heirs, the crown should go to the House of Hanover, which was descended from James I (see note, sec. 321).

348. **Final Supremacy of Parliament.**—The reign of William and Mary was one of the most important in British history because it established finally the supremacy of Parliament. It also marked the beginning of Cabinet government, the Cabinet being responsible to Parliament and not to the sovereign.[2] Note the steps during this reign by which Parliament became supreme: —

1. By electing William king and passing the Act of Settlement Parliament chooses the sovereign and is therefore superior to the

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[1] In 1716 the term was made seven years, and in 1911, five years.

[2] By a responsible Cabinet or minister is meant one that is subject to removal.

sovereign, as when the American people choose a President they expect him to carry out their wishes.

2. Parliament by the Triennial Act made it impossible for a sovereign to do as Charles II had done in the case of the Cavalier Parliament, or to govern without a Parliament, as his father had done. Also, Parliament, by voting revenue bills for the expenses of the government for only one year at a time, made the king constantly dependent.

3. Finally, the king's ministers, or Cabinet, came to be responsible, not to the king, but to Parliament. This was a growth of more than a century, but it had its beginning in the reign of William and Mary. With the ministers responsible to Parliament such arbitrary government as that by Charles I and Wentworth (sec. 332) became impossible. In short, Parliament, after a hundred years of struggle, became supreme in the British government, as it still remains, subject only to its master, the people.

349. **General Progress.** — In this chapter we have reviewed in brief space the progress of English history for nearly a century, closing with the reign of William III, one of England's greatest rulers. Macaulay says that three persons made modern England — Elizabeth, Cromwell, and William III.

William's war on the Continent with Louis XIV of France will be noticed in the next chapter. When in 1702 William was planning a great continental expedition, he was injured by a fall from his horse and died soon after.

In literature England made no great advance at this time. After the passing of John Milton (1608–1674) and John Bunyan (1628–1688) the only great name in English letters during the second half of the century was that of John Dryden (1631–1700).

In science the progress was more rapid. Sir Isaac Newton announced his great discovery of the law of gravitation, and Harvey, as early as the reign of James I, discovered the circulation of the blood. To these great steps in science were added many minor ones due to the investigating spirit that had its origin in the Renaissance.

Questions and Topics. — I. Give a brief account of the reign of the Tudors, 1485–1603. How did James I come to the English throne? What did he mean by the divine right of kings? Who were the Puritans and how were they divided? What was the result of the Hampton Court Conference? Describe the Gunpowder Plot. Why did James not get on with his Parliaments?

II. What were the peculiar advantages of Charles I when he ascended the throne? Which is more likely to win success in life, a young man who inherits advantages, or one who does not? Why? Can you give an example of each? What is the Petition of Right and with what great document is it compared? Describe the Hampden trial. What effect had it on the people? What was the underlying cause of the trouble between Charles and his Parliaments? What important religious creed was framed at this time? Do you think Charles was justly put to death?

III. How did Cromwell justify himself for devastating Ireland? Do you agree with him? How long did England remain a republic? What is the difference between a republic and a monarchy? What is a constitution? In what important respect was Cromwell in advance of his age with respect to religious liberty?

IV. What is meant by the English Restoration? Give an estimate of Charles II. What was the title of James II before he became king? What state and city in America were named in his honor? What caused the Revolution of 1688?

V. Who were William and Mary? How did Scotland and Ireland receive the new sovereigns? By what act did Parliament establish its supremacy over the sovereign? What were the provisions of the Act of Settlement? What progress did England make during the reign of William and Mary?

Events and Dates. — Reign of James I, 1603–1625; of Charles I, 1625–1649. The Petition of Right, 1628. Death of Cromwell, 1658. Restoration of Charles II, 1660. Death of Milton, 1674. The English Revolution, 1688. William and Mary, 1689–1702.

For Further Reading. — Histories of England by Green, Ransome, Gardiner, Andrews, and Cross give good accounts of this subject. Firth, *Oliver Cromwell and Rule of Puritans in England.* Pepys's *Diary* (1659–1665), found in many school libraries, gives vivid and interesting pictures of the time.

THE OLD RÉGIME

CHAPTER XXVIII

FRANCE AND LOUIS XIV

350. Rise of the Absolute Monarchy. — With the passing of Feudalism (ch. XVIII) most of the nations of Europe became absolute monarchies. An absolute monarchy is a government in which the monarch has complete or absolute power. He makes and enforces the laws. The people obey the laws, but have no part in making them.

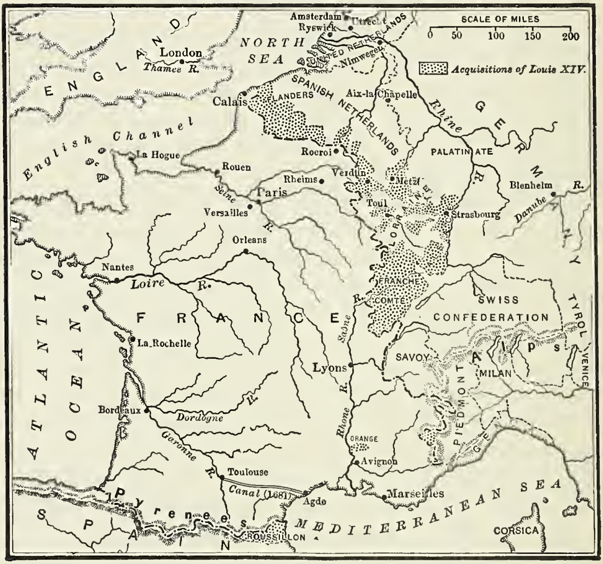
Under the feudal system there were thousands of petty rulers, each with his castle, his little trained army, and his domains over which he was master. Gradually, after the invention of printing and of gunpowder, the feudal estates became merged into the greater state, the kingdom (sec. 241). The absolute power of the king was most thoroughly established in France, while at the other extreme were Germany and Italy, which continued under the divided control of many petty rulers.

The absolute monarchy is not at all to the taste of the American people, who enjoy self-government; but it must be remembered that the people of that day were not ready for self-government and that the absolute monarchy was an improvement over feudalism.

351. The Early Times of Louis XIV. — On the death of Louis XIII in 1643 his little son, not yet five years old, inherited the French throne as Louis XIV. His reign of seventy-two years (1643–1715) was the longest in European history. He came to be known as the Grand Monarch and was the typical absolute monarch of modern times.

The brilliant career of the great Richelieu had just closed (sec. 325) and the Thirty Years' War was near its ending. Owing to the part Richelieu had taken in that war the Hapsburg House of Austria had been humiliated, the Bourbon House of France had become the leading dynasty of Europe, and France had reached her pinnacle of greatness.

During the childhood of the young king the government was administered by his mother, who was an Austrian princess and was known as Anne of Austria. Her chief minister was Mazarin (mȧ-zȧ-răɴ′), who had been chosen and trained in the public


SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150 200
Acquisitions of Louis XIV
ENGLAND
London
Thames R.
NORTH SEA
Amsterdam
Utrecht
Ryswick
UNITED NETHERLANDS
Nimwegen
SPANISH NETHERLANDS
FLANDERS
Calais
Aix-la-Chapelle
Rhine
GERMANY
PALATINATE
R.
Blenheim
Danube
English Channel
La Hogue
Rouen
Rocroi
Rheims
Verdun
Metz
Paris
Seine
R.
Versailles
Toul
LORRAINE
ALSACE
Strasbourg
Orleans
Nantes
Loire
R.
FRANCHE COMTÉ
SWISS CONFEDERATION
TYROL
ATLANTIC OCEAN
FRANCE
Saône
La Rochelle
Lyons
R.
SAVOY
ALPS
MILAN
VENICE
PIEDMONT
Rhone
Bordeaux
Dordogne
R.
ORANGE
Garonne
Avignon
GENOA
Toulouse
R.
Canal (1681)
Agde
Marseilles
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CORSICA
Pyrenees
SPAIN
ROUSSILLON

FRANCE: ACQUISITIONS OF LOUIS XIV

service by Richelieu. In ability he could not be compared with his great master, but he was a man of inventive mind and of strong common sense. For nearly twenty years Mazarin and the queen carried on the government on the principles laid down by Richelieu. At this time the nobles, who had been subdued by Richelieu, made a final effort to regain their prestige. But in a short civil war, called the War of the Fronde (frônd), they were defeated and never again did they give the monarchy serious trouble.

352. The Brilliant Age; Colbert. — On the death of Mazarin in 1661 the young king assumed control of the government and even became his own prime minister. He was a profound believer in the "divine right" of kings. The English Parliament he pronounced an "intolerable evil." The famous saying, "I am the State," ascribed to Louis, sums up his ideas of government, whether he really used the expression or not. For two decades after Louis assumed the government the financial and industrial progress of the nation was remarkable; but it was not due to the king, who was of mediocre ability; it was due to Colbert (kôl-bâr'), his great minister of finance. Only a few of the great things Colbert did can be mentioned here.

When Colbert came into power the revenues were far less than the expenditures. The taxes were farmed out as in the case of the Roman provinces (sec. 155), and less than half the taxes paid by the people reached the public treasury. Colbert changed all this. He deprived great numbers of useless office holders of their offices; he reduced the pensions of nobles and courtiers to half what they were before; he deprived thousands of newly made nobles of their titles (which they had bought) and made them again taxpayers; he greatly increased the revenue and turned a deficit into a surplus, while at the same time he reduced the land tax by half for the benefit of the farmers.

Other great improvements were due to Colbert. He found his country in its infancy in manufacturing; he left it one of the leaders in Europe. He fostered shipbuilding and foreign trade, built many roads, and constructed the great Languedoc (läng-dȯk') Canal to connect the Atlantic Ocean with the Mediterranean Sea. The industrial system of France to-day rests on the foundations laid by Louis XIV's great minister, Colbert.[1]

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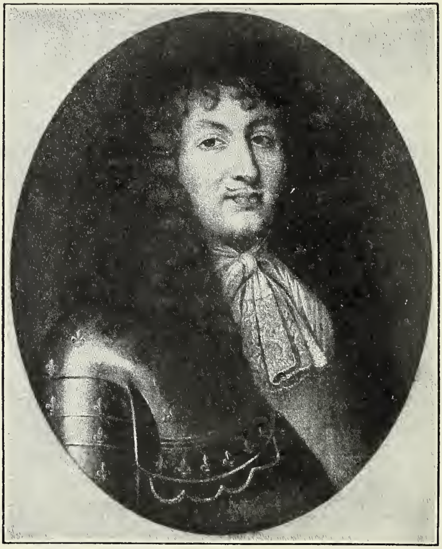
[1] Owing to the increased taxes caused by the wars, which he opposed and could not prevent, Colbert became very unpopular and on his death he was buried by night to prevent a riot.

Next to Colbert the greatest man of the reign was Vauban (vō-bäɴ′), who was a military genius. He made great changes especially in the fortifying and capturing of cities. It was said that "a city besieged by Vauban was a captured city, and a city defended by him, an impregnable one." The French army was brought to such a degree of perfection that it became the model for all the armies of Europe.



Louis XIV

From a portrait by Mignard, in the Louvre.

353. **Wars of Louis XIV.** — The brilliant age closed with the death of Colbert in 1683. Had King Louis chosen to make his life work the perfecting and continuing of the great improvements of Colbert, he might have left a great name in history. But he

chose to make war on his neighbors that he might win a little more territory and make a military record. The result was that during the last thirty years of his reign there was a gradual decline in industry and commerce, while the coming generations were burdened with a crushing national debt.

The first of Louis's wars was against the Spanish Netherlands (Belgium) on a flimsy pretext, 1667–1668; but he was thwarted by the Dutch Netherlands (United Netherlands or Holland). A fierce resentment was thus kindled in the breast of the Grand Monarch against the little republic, and he determined to crush it. The Dutch fought with great bravery. They made William of Orange, great-grandson of William the Silent and later king of England (secs. 345–346), their captain general. The remaining thirty years of William's life were one long struggle with Louis XIV, and it was he more than any other man who foiled the ambitions of the French monarch. When a French army besieged Amsterdam, he drove it away by cutting the dikes and letting in the waters of the North Sea.

At length William formed a great European coalition against Louis, and when he became king of England (1689) that country also was joined with the coalition. The long war that followed (1689–1697), called the War of the Palatinate, was known in America as King William's War. Neither side gained much by this devastating conflict. It was the beginning of what has been called the Second Hundred Years' War between France and England, contending for commercial world supremacy.[1]

354. **War of the Spanish Succession.** — The War of the Spanish Succession (in America Queen Anne's War), 1702–1713, was an effort to preserve the "Balance of Power" in Europe.[2] When the king of Spain died in 1700 and left a will bequeathing his vast possessions to a grandson of the king of France, the

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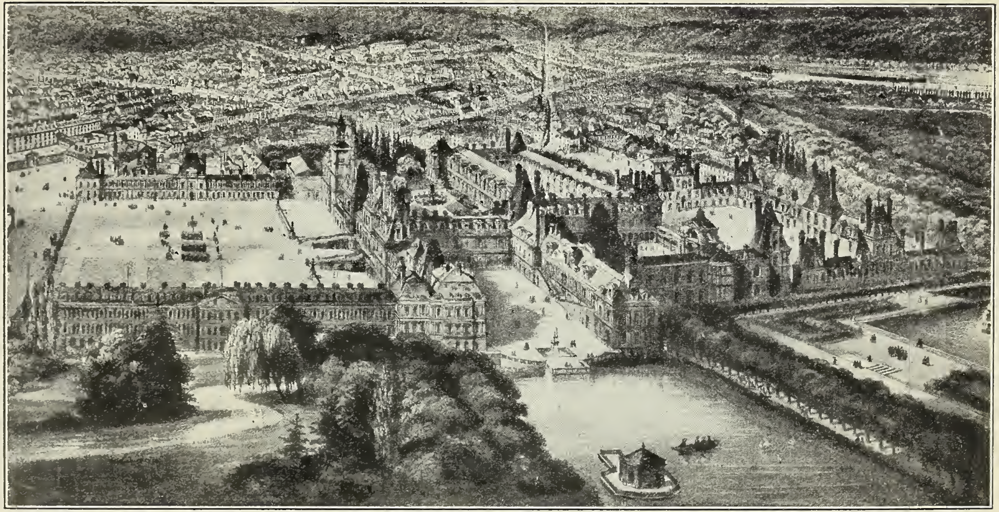
[1] It really lasted more than a hundred years. Beginning in 1689, it continued to the fall of Napoleon in 1815, with many intervals of peace. The English gained control of the sea in the battle of La Hogue (sec. 346).

[2] By the Balance of Power is meant the effort to prevent any one nation from becoming too great in the fear that it might become a menace to the rest.



Palace of Fontainebleau (fôɴ-tĕn-blō′)

Built by Francis I, who received the Emperor Charles V within its walls. Henry IV, and his son Louis XIII who was born here, made considerable additions to this famous building, one of the largest, and in the interior, one of the most sumptuous of the royal residences of France. It was in this palace that Louis XIV signed the paper revoking the Edict of Nantes.

other powers objected, as this would place the crowns of both France and Spain in the hands of the Bourbon dynasty. Such power in the same family would disturb the balance and become a menace to the peace of Europe. So the war began.

It developed strong commanders, as the Duke of Marlborough of England and Prince Eugene of Savoy'; and there were a few battles of world renown, as the allied victory of Blenheim (blĕn'em) in 1704. In the end the French prince was permitted to remain on the Spanish throne on the condition that France and Spain should remain forever separate. This yielding of the allies was due to the fact that their own candidate for the Spanish crown, the Archduke Charles of Austria, had become emperor and they were no longer desirous of making him king of Spain. But other results of the war, which closed with the treaty of Utrecht (ū'trĕkt) in 1713, were of greater importance.

Great Britain (sec. 330) received Acadia (Nova Scotia), Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay country, from France, and Gibraltar, the mighty gateway to the Mediterranean, from Spain; all these possessions she still holds. Austria received Naples (all southern Italy), the former Spanish Netherlands, and other possessions. Holland (the Dutch Netherlands) after this war ceased to be a first-class power and has never since risen to that eminence. France was greatly crippled by the war and her fortunes were at the lowest ebb when, two years later (1715), her aged monarch passed away.

355. The Huguenots under Louis XIV. — One of the greatest mistakes ever made by Louis XIV was his revoking of the Edict of Nantes. It will be remembered that King Henry of Navarre in the Edict of Nantes, 1598, granted certain privileges to the Huguenots or French Protestants (sec. 315). The Huguenots, of whom there were about one million, were industrious, loyal, harmless people. But King Louis, in the belief that all the people should be of one faith, and misled by over-zealous advisers, revoked the Edict of Nantes in 1685 and deprived his Protestant subjects of all their privileges. It was a stunning blow to the industries of France, and France in later years paid the penalty for the blunder of her stupid king.

The Huguenot ministers were ordered to leave the kingdom, and their congregations were forbidden to follow. But in spite of the king's police system, about 250,000 of them crossed the borders and "carried to foreign lands the French arts, the secrets of French manufactures, and hatred of their king." In the armies of England, the Netherlands, and Germany whole regiments were formed of French Protestants.

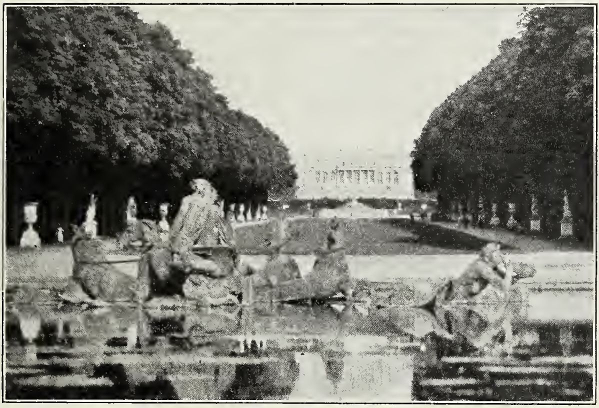
Many of the Huguenots made their way to America, and among their descendants were such leading citizens of our country as Alexander Hamilton, John Jay, Peter Faneuil (făn''l), and Paul Revere.

356. Versailles. — No monarch of modern times ever considered himself more completely lord of the earth, or at least of his own people, than Louis XIV. Court etiquette in France was intolerably exacting. Everything centered in the king. Great lords and nobles considered it an honor to do him any menial service. It required seven persons to help him put on his shirt when he awoke in the morning. While sitting at meals or moving about his court the king was attended with the utmost pomp by his servile courtiers.

Desiring an exclusive home for royalty, near Paris but away from the turmoil of the great city and the contamination of the common herd, Louis XIV built a royal city, Versailles (vĕr-sä'y'), twelve miles from Paris. Here he spent a hundred million dollars of the people's money; hither he moved with his court, his five thousand servants, and thousands of other retainers, and here amid the splendors of Versailles the élite of France, attached to a court of "sweated hypocrisy," lived a false, artificial, immoral existence, wasting enormous sums of money earned by the toiling masses.

The royal palace built by the Grand Monarch at Versailles, containing hundreds of rooms, was the grandest ever seen in Europe. To-day it remains, with many other public buildings and wonderful public gardens, a monument of voluptuous extravagance. It is visited every year by thousands of tourists.

357. **Culture and Progress.** — In spite of its blunders and its extravagance, the long reign of Louis XIV was an age of progress and was the literary age of France. Few other names in French literature can be classed with the great dramatists, Molière (mô-lyâr′), Corneille (kôr-nā′y′), and Racine (rȧ-sēn′), or with the philosophers Pascal and Descartes (dā-kärt′), all of whom were contemporary with Louis XIV.



Palace of Versailles as seen from the Gardens

This side of the palace is almost 2000 feet long. The portion seen in this picture contains the Gallery of Mirrors, so named from the seventeen large mirrors which occupy the side of the room opposite the round arched windows on the second floor. It was in this great hall that the Treaty of 1919 with Germany, ending the World War, was signed by delegates representing nearly nine tenths of the population of the globe.

In many other respects France set the pace for Europe. French etiquette, dress, and fashions were imitated everywhere. It even became the fashion to use the French language in court circles and polite society throughout Europe, and this continued for a hundred years.

SIDE TALKS

Louis XIV. — The following is from the diary of St. Simon, a member of the court of Louis XIV.

"The king's great qualities shone more brilliantly by reason of an exterior so unique and incomparable as to lend infinite distinction to his slightest actions; the very figure of a hero, as appeared even in his most insignificant gestures and movements, without arrogance but with simple gravity; proportions such as a sculptor would choose for a model; a perfect countenance and the grandest air and mien ever vouchsafed to man; all these advantages enhanced by a natural grace which enveloped all his actions with a singular charm which has never perhaps been equaled. He was as dignified and majestic in his dressing-gown as when dressed in robes of state, or on horseback at the head of his troops. . . .

"Louis XIV's vanity was without limit or restraint; it colored everything and convinced him that no one even approached him in military talents, in plans and enterprises, in government. Hence, those pictures and inscriptions in the gallery at Versailles which disgust every foreigner; those opera prologues that he himself tried to sing; that flood of prose and verse in his praise for which his appetite was insatiable; those dedications of statues copied from pagan sculpture, and the insipid and sickening compliments that were continually offered to him in person and which he swallowed with unfailing relish. Hence, his distaste for all merit, intelligence, education, and, most of all, for all independence of character and sentiment in others; his mistakes of judgment in matters of importance; his familiarity and favor reserved entirely for those to whom he felt himself superior in acquirements and ability; and, above everything else, a jealousy of his own authority which determined and took precedence of every other sort of justice, reason, and consideration whatever."

Fight of the French and Spanish Ambassadors in London. — For some centuries France and Spain were rival powers. Spain held the leadership during the period of Charles V and Philip II. But from the time of King Henry IV of France, 1589–1610, France steadily rose in power while Spain declined. Under Richelieu (died 1642) France passed Spain and since then has been the superior power. In nothing did their rivalry appear more conspicuously than in the unseemly broils that took place between their respective ambassadors at foreign courts. The worst of these took place in London in 1661, the year following the Restoration in England. The Swedish ambassador was about to arrive in London. In the procession from the wharf on the bank of the Thames to the court, his carriage, according to custom, was to follow that of the king of England, and the carriages of the other ambassadors were to follow his in the order of their respective nations.

On this occasion the French and Spanish ambassadors each determined that his carriage should follow immediately after the Swede's, and both prepared for a contest. The king of England, knowing what was coming, forbade all Englishmen, under penalty of death, from taking part in the contest. A great crowd of people gathered along the wharf to see the fight. The Spanish carriage, guarded by fifty men armed with swords, arrived at the place five hours before the time for the procession and thus secured the best position, but the French guards numbered more than a hundred, armed with swords and pistols. The fight, beginning on the river bank, continued into the city. Twelve men and many horses were killed and about forty men were wounded. The Spaniards, though outnumbered, won a complete victory.

When Louis XIV, king of France, heard of the affair he was wroth. He dismissed the Spanish ambassador from Paris, recalled his own from Madrid, and declared that he would make war on Spain if precedence of France over Spain were not acknowledged in every court in Europe. After some months of diplomatic correspondence Spain yielded all that the French king demanded. For a fuller account of this remarkable episode, see Pepys's *Diary*.

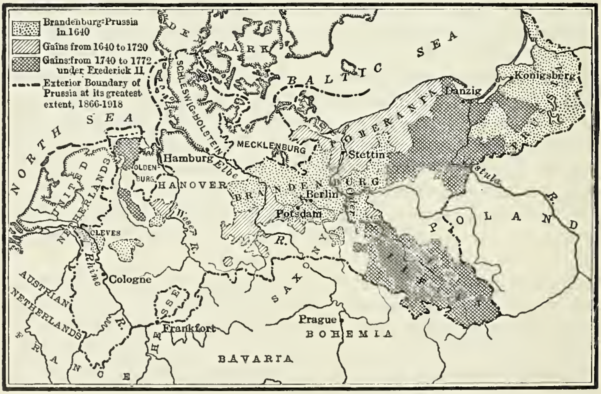
The Man in the Iron Mask. — One of the great mysteries of the reign of Louis XIV is seen in the story of the Man in the Iron Mask. This man died in the Bastille (bȧs-tēl′), a great fortress in Paris, in 1703, after an imprisonment of twenty-four years. During all that time the prisoner was never permitted to talk to any one except the jailer. Whenever he was seen his face was covered with a black mask, which, by the way, was made of velvet and not of iron as popular fancy pictured it. It was evident that for reasons of state his identity was not to be made known.

All manner of speculations were rife as to who was the Man in the Iron Mask. Some hinted that he was a twin brother of King Louis XIV, who thus sacrificed him to make his own title to the throne secure. Others thought the celebrated prisoner was a son of Oliver Cromwell, and still others with more reason that he was a state prisoner of France whose confinement, if known, would cause trouble with some foreign country. Many years after his death it was ascertained with practical certainty that the mysterious prisoner was an ambassador from an Italian state, who, being suspected of treachery, was infamously kidnaped and kept in solitary confinement by order of Louis XIV for the rest of his life.

Questions and Topics. — What is an absolute monarchy? In what way do you consider it an improvement over feudalism? Who was Mazarin? Who was Colbert? What great work did he do for France? What was the cause of the War of the Spanish Succession? What great results came from it? Name some leading Americans descended from Huguenots driven from France. Describe the royal city of Versailles. Name great dramatists and philosophers of the time of Louis XIV.

Events and Dates. — Death of Colbert, 1683. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, 1685. War of the Spanish Succession, 1702–1713. Death of Louis XIV, 1715.

For Further Reading. — Hassall, *Louis XIV and the Zenith of the French Monarchy*. Saint Simon, *Memoirs on the Reign of Louis XIV, and the Regency* (4 vols. English, abridged). This is a most entertaining narrative of the inner court life of the latter part of the reign of Louis XIV. The histories of England mentioned at the end of the preceding chapter give short accounts of the War of the Spanish Succession.


Brandenburg-Prussia in 1640
Gains from 1640 to 1720
Gains from 1740 to 1772 under Frederick II
Exterior Boundary of Prussia at its greatest extent, 1866-1918
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
DENMARK
SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN
MECKLENBURG
POMERANIA
Danzig
Königsberg
PRUSSIA
Vistula R.
Stettin
Hamburg
Elbe
OLDENBURG
HANOVER
BRANDENBURG
Berlin
Potsdam
Oder
R.
UNITED NETHERLANDS
CLEVES
Rhine
Cologne
Weser R.
SAXONY
POLAND
AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS
HESSE
Frankfort
R.
Prague
BOHEMIA
BAVARIA
FRANCE

Growth of Brandenburg–Prussia

Minor states not included in Prussia are shown in the map on page 572.

CHAPTER XXIX

RISE OF PRUSSIA AND RUSSIA

DURING the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries nothing in the development of Europe is of greater interest and importance than the growing of Prussia and Russia into great nations. Among the builders of Prussia the names of two men stand apart from all the rest — the Great Elector and Frederick the Great. In the building of Russia also we find two figures who rise far above all others — Peter the Great and Catherine the Great.

I. PRUSSIA

358. Brandenburg and the Hohenzollerns. — One of the northern German states during the Middle Ages was Brandenburg (brän′den-bo͝orK). Its ruler was called an elector because he had a vote in electing the emperors. When in 1415 the old line of electors died out, the emperor sold Brandenburg to the Count of Hohenzollern (hō-en-tsōl′ern), a nobleman whose castle was in the Alps. The Hohenzollerns proved to be strong rulers.

Soon after 1600 the elector of Brandenburg secured two very important additions of territory, Cleves on the river Rhine, and Prussia, later called East Prussia, which lay far to the east, on the shore of the Baltic Sea, outside the Empire and separated from Brandenburg by a part of Poland. Thus the electors of Brandenburg ruled over three widely separated districts. It was their ambition to unite them by acquiring the intervening territory.

359. The Great Elector (1640–1688). — Frederick William, known as the Great Elector, coming into his inheritance in the last period of the Thirty Years' War, found his lands reduced to misery by the devastating armies. But he was a man of great vigor; he soon raised an army and drove out the foreign soldiers. At the treaty of Westphalia, 1648, he acquired important bits of territory, including a frontage for Brandenburg on the Baltic Sea. Later he secured the release of the Polish claims on East Prussia and thus became absolute master of that section.

The Great Elector was a good Protestant, but, broader-minded than the French king, he welcomed Catholics into his country and made them eligible to office. And when in 1685 Louis XIV revoked the Edict of Nantes (sec. 355) and thousands of Huguenots escaped from the domains of their persecuting monarch, Frederick William welcomed them to his country. In a proclamation he offered them free lands and utensils for cultivating the soil. About 20,000 French Protestants responded and settled in the Great Elector's domains. No doubt large numbers of Germans are among the descendants of these immigrants.

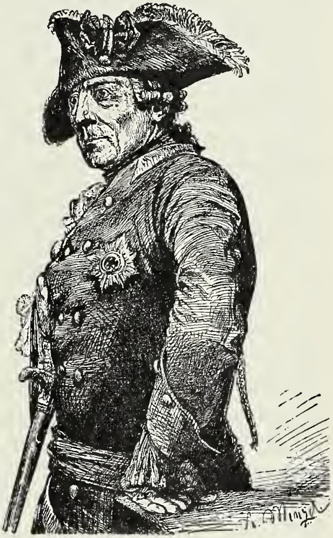
The Great Elector was an absolute monarch, but he believed himself the servant rather than the master of the people. He made great improvements. He built roads and dug canals and drained marshes; he built towns and encouraged industries. He made a name for himself that commanded respect over all Europe. Oliver Cromwell, through his secretary, the poet John Milton, sent Elector Frederick William a letter of friendship and congratulation.

The son and successor of the Great Elector was Frederick, a much weaker man than his father. But he is remembered for having secured the title of king in addition to the less dignified title of elector, in 1701. Soon after this time the name Brandenburg began to fall into disuse and all the Hohenzollern possessions came to be called Prussia.

360. **Frederick the Great and his Father.** — King Frederick William (1713–1740), the son of Frederick I and father of Frederick the Great, was a coarse, rough man, fond of hunting wild game and smoking strong tobacco. He ruled his country and

his own household with a hand of iron. He carried a cane and did not hesitate to use it on citizens or soldiers or members of his family. Sometimes on the streets of Berlin he would strike a loitering citizen and bid him go to work. He had a great fondness for the tall soldiers whom he called his "blue children." He gathered giants from all over Europe and formed them into a bodyguard, but was careful not to let them get into battle.

Eccentric as Frederick William was, he had a solid basis of good sense and Christian character. He greatly cut down the royal expenses, even retaining but thirty of the thousand riding horses inherited from his father. In his instructions as to how his son should be educated we find this: "Other men are guided toward virtue and away from evil by the rewards and punishments dealt out by those who are set above them, but a prince must rely on the fear of God alone, since he is subject to no human law, punishment, or reward."



Frederick the Great

From a drawing by Menzel.

Frederick II, the Great (1740–1786), was the most famous character in the long line of Hohenzollern rulers. Like the rest of his race he was devoted to the upbuilding of Prussia, and was not scrupulous in his methods. Unlike his father, he was fond of art, literature, and music. Coming to the throne at the age of twenty-eight, he inherited a great state, a well trained army, and a large sum of gold. With these advantages, led on by a burning ambition, Frederick determined to add to his dominions and to make a great name for himself. One of the first things he did was to invade Silesia (sĭ-lē′-shĭ-a), without any declaration of war, without warning, suddenly in the winter of 1740.

Silesia was an Austrian province, jutting like a peninsula between Poland and Bohemia. Frederick's twofold object, as he admitted, was to add that province to Prussia and to make a military name for himself. He did both. In the war with Austria he retained the disputed province and became the greatest military commander of his time. In a later war he was defeated and almost overpowered, but he did not give up. He fought on against great odds until his enemies, disagreeing among themselves, abandoned the contest and let him keep what he had seized.

361. **Frederick the Great in Peace.** — Frederick was more than a war leader; he was a statesman of high rank. Prussia had already become a strong state before Frederick came to the throne, but he increased its prestige greatly and made it a power of the first class. He did everything to encourage the manufacture of silk and woolen products, of glass, porcelain, and paper goods, and to aid the farmers he furnished cavalry horses for plowing. Like his father and the Great Elector, he encouraged immigrants, and many thousands from other countries found a home in Prussia during the forty-six years of his reign. It is estimated that a third of the Prussian people are descendants of immigrants from other lands.

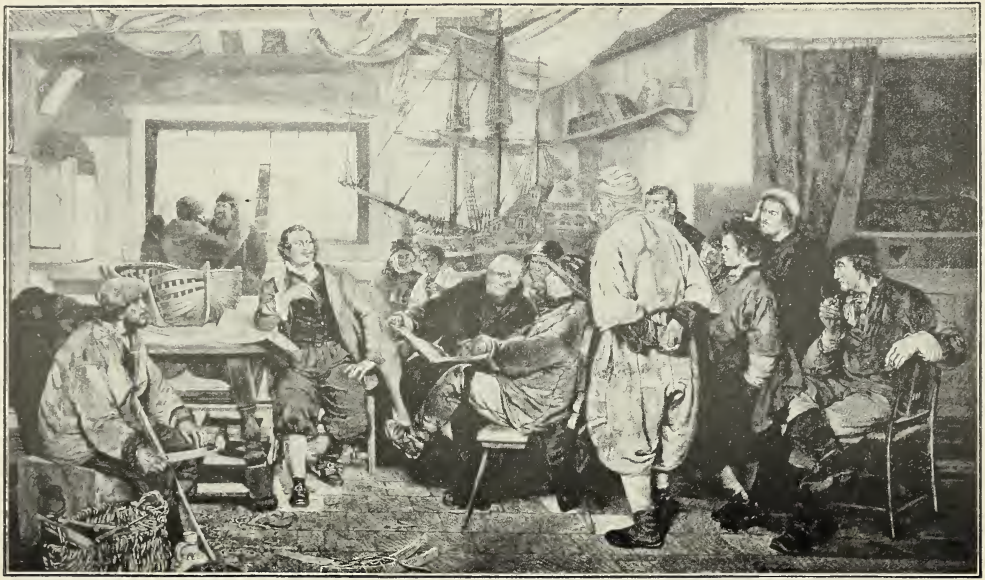
Frederick the Great was a man of prodigious industry; but there was a convivial side to his nature. With congenial companions he spent many a night at Potsdam, near Berlin, in merry-making. At his invitation the great French wit and skeptical writer, Voltaire (vōl-târ′), joined the merry throng and remained a guest of the Prussian ruler for two or three years. Now Frederick prided himself on his literary attainments, while the French poet thought he knew something of military matters. It is said that while Frederick wished to converse about poetry Voltaire preferred to show what he knew about war and statecraft, and at the same time each secretly laughed at the other's ignorance. At length the two men quarreled; the Frenchman shook the dust of Prussia from his feet and returned no more.

It is a singular fact that Frederick, with all his love of literature, could not appreciate the German literature of his time. The leading German authors of the period were Goethe (gû'tē, 1749–1832), the greatest of all German writers, the Shakespeare of Germany, a few of whose early works were produced in Frederick's reign; Lessing (1729–1781) and Schiller (1759–1805), dramatists of high rank; and Kant (1724–1804), the great philosopher who wrote that immortal work, *The Critique of Pure Reason.* Frederick the Great admired the French language and literature. He pronounced Shakespeare's plays "abominable" and "fit only for the savages of Canada," and he accused Goethe of imitating the wretched English plays.

II. Beginnings of Russia

362. Reign of Peter the Great (1689–1725). — The land ruled by Ivan the Great (sec. 257) was only the central and northern parts of what later came to be Russia. Under his successors the country was expanded; but it had not yet reached either the Baltic Sea or the Black Sea when Peter the Great came to the throne as the tsar (or czar) — the Russian word for Caesar or emperor.

The early education of Peter the Great was sadly neglected. Like Charlemagne and Alfred the Great, he saw, when too late, what he had missed. When he came to the throne Russia had no outlet to the sea and the people were far behind the rest of Europe in civilization. Peter determined to give his life toward securing a seaport and to leading his people to adopt European civilization. But first he had to conquer himself, and this was not an easy task. He was a strange mixture of barbarian and civilized man. His anger was ferocious when aroused. He cut



Peter the Great as a Shipwright in Holland

(From a painting by Cogen.)

off the heads of his enemies with his own hand. At times he would spend a night with the roughest of companions.[1] But Peter was a man of sincere motives and during his long reign he did much to uplift his people. He introduced European customs and aided the church; he established an army and a navy and built schools and factories and cities. It is to Peter the Great that Russia is indebted more than to any one else in her history.

363. Peter's Westward Journey and his Reforms. — In order to learn at first hand of the progressive spirit of Western Europe, Peter the Great with a small company made a tour of Holland, England, and Germany, in 1697–1698. In Holland he put on the garb of a sailor and worked for a time in the shipyards. In his tour the young tsar studied the manners and customs of the people; he studied printing presses, flour mills, and many kinds of factories; he even took short courses in surgery and pulling teeth; and he hired many skilled workmen to go back with him to his own country. When about to continue his journey into Italy he was startled by the news that the old Russian army, known as the Streltsi (strĕl′tsē), were plotting a rebellion against his power.

Hastening back to Moscow (mŏs′kō), his capital, Peter took a fearful vengeance on the rebels. He put great numbers to death, and, as a warning to others, he stuck the heads of hundreds of the executed on the walls of the buildings in public view and left them there all winter. Within a few years Peter had utterly broken the power of the nobility by which the Streltsi had been controlled. He obtained control of the church by refusing to appoint a successor to the patriarch, who died in 1700. Thus Peter became absolute master of Russia.

In his efforts to introduce European ways Peter extended his reforms even to dress and personal appearance. He ordered the men, except the priests and peasants, to cut off their beards, and he abolished the long-skirted robes. He stationed tailors and barbers at the gates of Moscow to trim off the long robes and flowing whiskers of the men who entered. Those refusing the royal command were subjected to fines.

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[1] On one occasion when Peter was intoxicated he drew his sword to kill Admiral LeFort, his closest friend and constant companion. Later he made a public apology, saying, "I am trying to reform my country and am not yet able to reform myself."

364. War with Charles XII of Sweden; St. Petersburg. — For some time after the reign of Gustavus Adolphus (secs. 323–324), the greatest power on the Baltic Sea was Sweden. The Swedes controlled not only their own country but also Finland, Esthonia, and parts of Germany. In 1697 Charles XII, then a boy of fifteen years, ascended the Swedish throne. The neighboring nations, believing that so youthful a sovereign would not be able to defend his possessions, formed a coalition against him. But Charles proved to be a remarkable military genius. He defeated all his enemies, including Peter the Great. At Narva, in 1700, the Russian tsar with 40,000 men was beaten by the boy king with only 8000. But Peter was not disheartened. He coolly declared, "The Swedes may beat us at first, but they teach us how to beat them." Nine years later, at the battle of Poltava (pŏl-tä′va), Peter won a great victory over Charles, almost annihilating his army. This victory did much toward raising Russia to the position of a first-class power.

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Meantime Peter had laid the foundations of his new capital on the marshy shores of the Baltic Sea, at the mouth of the Ne′va River (1703), and had called it after his own name, St. Petersburg.[1] Foundations were made by driving piles into the marsh. Whole forests were consumed for this purpose and for the erecting of buildings. In this arduous toil, says a writer of the time, the lives of more than eight thousand men and as many horses were destroyed.

365. Peter's Influence; Catherine the Great. — At the death of this masterful ruler in 1725 a tremendous work had been done toward introducing western civilization. No European sovereign ever left a more permanent impress on his people. There were

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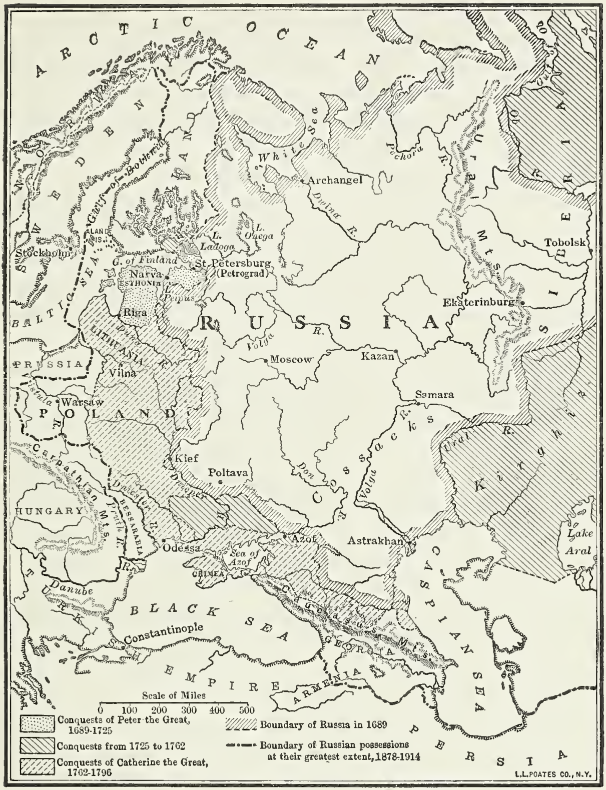
[1] Renamed Petrograd (pyĕ-trŏ-grät′) in 1914, and Leningrad in 1924.


ARCTIC OCEAN
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
Gulf of Bothnia
White Sea
Archangel
Pechora R.
Dwina R.
Ural Mts.
SIBERIA
Gulf of Ob
Tobolsk
Ekaterinburg
ALAND IS.
Stockholm
L. Ladoga
L. Onega
G. of Finland
St. Petersburg (Petrograd)
Narva
ESTHONIA
L. Peipus
Riga
BALTIC SEA
RUSSIA
Volga R.
Moscow
Kazan
Samara
PRUSSIA
LITHUANIA
Dwina R.
Vilna
Vistula R.
Warsaw
POLAND
Carpathian Mts.
Kief
Dnieper R.
Poltava
Cossacks
Don R.
Volga
Ural R.
Kirghiz
Lake Aral
HUNGARY
Dniester R.
Pruth R.
BESSARABIA
Odessa
Azof
Sea of Azof
Astrakhan
CRIMEA
Danube
BLACK SEA
Caucasus Mts.
GEORGIA
ARMENIA
CASPIAN SEA
Constantinople
TURKISH EMPIRE
PERSIA
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Conquests of Peter the Great, 1689-1725
Conquests from 1725 to 1762
Conquests of Catherine the Great, 1762-1796
Boundary of Russia in 1689
Boundary of Russian possessions at their greatest extent, 1878-1914
L.L.POATES CO., N.Y.

RUSSIA: CONQUESTS OF PETER THE GREAT AND CATHERINE THE GREAT

moments of reaction during the following century, but Russia to this day has never wholly grown away from the influence of Peter the Great.

Next to Peter the most powerful personage in the making of modern Russia was Catherine II, the Great (1762–1796). In spite of her serious defects of character, Catherine proved herself a ruler of great capacity. She took up the work left unfinished by Peter nearly half a century before and even surpassed him in fostering Western civilization. She greatly extended the boundaries of Russia, not only in Europe but also in Asia, and she left her country one of the great nations of the world.

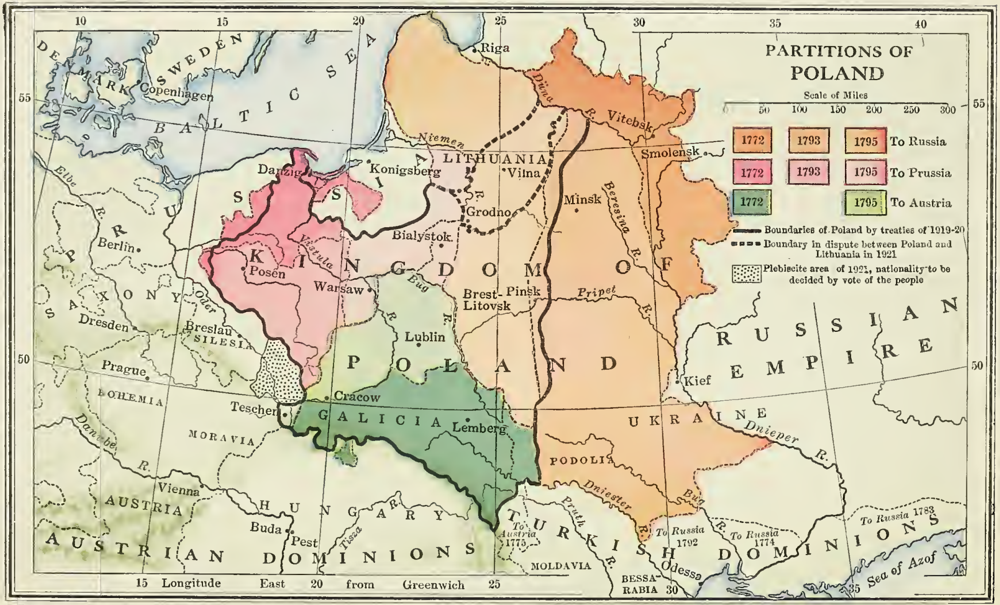
Peter and Catherine were of the Romanov (rō-mä′nof) dynasty, which ruled Russia for three hundred years, until 1917.

366. The Partitions of Poland (1772, 1793, 1795).—A map of Europe of two hundred years ago shows Poland as the greatest country in extent, except Russia; a map of the nineteenth century shows no such country.

Poland was nearly surrounded, in Central Europe, by Austria, Prussia, and Russia. The people were divided into two classes, the nobles, of whom there were about a million, and the serfs, numbering about thirteen million. There was no middle class. The government was in the hands of the nobles, and a turbulent, self-seeking lot they were. The diet of nobles elected their king, but gave him little power, and as any single member of the diet could veto a law, it was seldom that a good law was passed.

The adjoining nations encouraged disorder and anarchy in Poland. They had designs on the land, nothing short of dividing it up among themselves. Catherine II, with all her vast Russian possessions, looked with covetous greed upon Poland. Frederick the Great of Prussia also wanted a slice, for East Prussia was entirely separated from the rest of his dominions by a section of Poland. Mari′a There′sa, empress of Austria, was the only one of the three imperial robbers who had a conscience in the matter; but she yielded and took what she could when she saw that the other two would otherwise gobble up the whole.

The first division of Poland took place in 1772, when about one third of the country was seized. The Poles then took alarm and some years later made many reforms and adopted a good constitution. But the greedy nations would stay their hand at


PARTITIONS OF POLAND
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 150 200 250 300
1772 1793 1795 To Russia
1772 1793 1795 To Prussia
1772 1795 To Austria
Boundaries of Poland by treaties of 1919-20
Boundary in dispute between Poland and Lithuania in 1921
Plebiscite area of 1921, nationality to be decided by vote of the people
KINGDOM OF POLAND
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
PRUSSIA
SAXONY
BALTIC SEA
DENMARK
SWEDEN
LITHUANIA
GALICIA
UKRAINE
PODOLIA
SILESIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS
TURKISH DOMINIONS
MOLDAVIA
BESSARABIA
Copenhagen
Berlin
Dresden
Prague
Breslau
Vienna
Buda
Pest
Teschen
Cracow
Danzig
Konigsberg
Posen
Warsaw
Bialystok
Grodno
Vilna
Riga
Vitebsk
Smolensk
Minsk
Brest-Litovsk
Pinsk
Lublin
Lemberg
Kief
Odessa
Elbe
Oder
Vistula
Niemen R.
Düna R.
Bug R.
Beresina R.
Pripet R.
Dnieper R.
Dniester R.
Pruth R.
Danube R.
Tisza
Bug R.
Sea of Azof
To Austria 1775
To Russia 1792
To Russia 1774
To Russia 1783
10 15 20 25 30 35 40
55 50
15 Longitude East 20 from Greenwich 25 30 35

nothing. The second partition was made in 1793. Then arose in Poland the noble patriot, Kosciusko (kŏs-ĭ-ŭs'kō), who had fought for liberty in America under Washington. He led his people bravely in the hope of saving his country, but he fell a wounded prisoner;[1] his cause was lost and the remnants of Poland were divided among the three powers in 1795. Not until after the World War did Poland again attain independence.

Questions and Topics. — I. Who were the Hohenzollerns, and how did they get possession of Brandenburg? Describe the policy of the Great Elector in building up his domains. When did Prussia become a kingdom? Make a comparison between King Frederick William, and his son Frederick the Great. For what purpose did Frederick the Great invade Silesia? What can you tell of his literary taste?

II. Describe the character of Peter the Great. On what errand did he make a tour of the western nations? How did he get control of the army? the church? What were Peter's relations with Charles XII of Sweden? Describe the founding of St. Petersburg. Tell the story of the three partitions of Poland.

Events and Dates. — The Great Elector, 1640–1688. Reign of Frederick the Great, 1740–1786. Reign of Peter the Great of Russia, 1689–1725. Battle of Poltava, 1709. Founding of St. Petersburg, 1703. Reign of Catherine the Great, 1762–1796. The three partitions of Poland, 1772, 1793, 1795.

For Further Reading. — Schuyler, *Peter the Great, Emperor of Russia.* Bain, *Charles XII, and the Collapse of the Swedish Empire.* A good biography of Frederick the Great should also be read. Short treatments of the subjects of this chapter may be found in the histories of Modern Europe by Hayes, Schevill, Weir, Adams, and others, and longer accounts in the histories of Wakeman and Hassall.

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[1] "Hope for a season bade the earth farewell,
And Freedom shrieked when Kosciusko fell." — *Campbell.*

CHAPTER XXX

FRANCE AND ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

I. Colonial Expansion

367. Colonial Expansion. — One of the most notable features of the eighteenth century was the expansion of England into the British Empire. Great Britain made a long step in the building of her empire at the treaty of Utrecht (sec. 354). Later in the century she was to expand in the East and in the West, notwithstanding the loss of the colonies which gained their independence as the United States.

Tremendous wars accompanied the expansion movements, but between the first and second periods of expansion Great Britain enjoyed a season of peace under the guidance of one of her great statesmen, Robert Wal′pole.

Spain also, through the discovery of the New World, had gained overseas dominions. But Great Britain and Spain were not alone in their policy of expansion. In the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries, France, the Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, and later Germany and Belgium acquired vast holdings outside of Europe — especially in Africa, Asia, and the East Indian archipelago. Europe constitutes about one fifteenth of the world's land area, but the European states control more than half the earth's surface.

368. Sir Robert Walpole. — As already noted, the English Parliament in its struggle with the Stuart kings gained control of the government, and political parties and the Cabinet came into existence (secs. 343, 348). According to the Act of Settlement (sec. 347) the head of the House of Hanover ascended the throne of Great Britain as George I, in 1714. He was a good-natured, industrious, corpulent German gentleman who did not speak the

English language. He soon tired of meeting with his Cabinet, whose language he did not understand, and ceased to attend. No British sovereign has since resumed the practice.

The great figure in the reign of George I (1714–1727) was Robert Walpole. Becoming premier[1] in 1721, he guided the ship of state for many years. Walpole was not made in a heroic mold. He was sagacious and level-headed, and sincerely devoted to peace. He won his victories by clever manipulation. Walpole was in power for twenty-one years, under the first two Georges, father and son, and they were years of peace and great prosperity. It was the contentment of the people, due to Walpole, that established the Georges firmly on the throne and thwarted the Stuart "pretenders," son and grandson of the exiled James II, in their persistent efforts to regain the lost kingdom.

369. England Acquires India. — The great central peninsula of southern Asia is India, or Hindustan. It is a land of teeming populations of many races and many languages. Soon after 1600 the European peoples awakened to the importance of trading with India and the many islands of the eastern seas. The East was the land of spices and ivory and grain, of rich fabrics and precious stones, including the famous diamonds of Golcon′da.

Early in the seventeenth century we find Dutch, Portuguese, French, and English vessels trading in India and the East Indies. They were rivals and often enemies. After these nations had been trading and planting trading stations in the East for more than a century the rivalry for India was reduced to France and Great Britain. Each country had chartered a great trading company with almost sovereign powers, and these companies often came into conflict.[2]

In 1741 Dupleix (dü-plĕks′) became the French governor in India. He was an able organizer and he conceived the plan of establishing a great French colonial empire in India. His plan was frustrated by young Robert Clive of the British company. After some years of warfare, each side making use of many native soldiers, Dupleix was recalled to France; and with him fell the hope of French victory.

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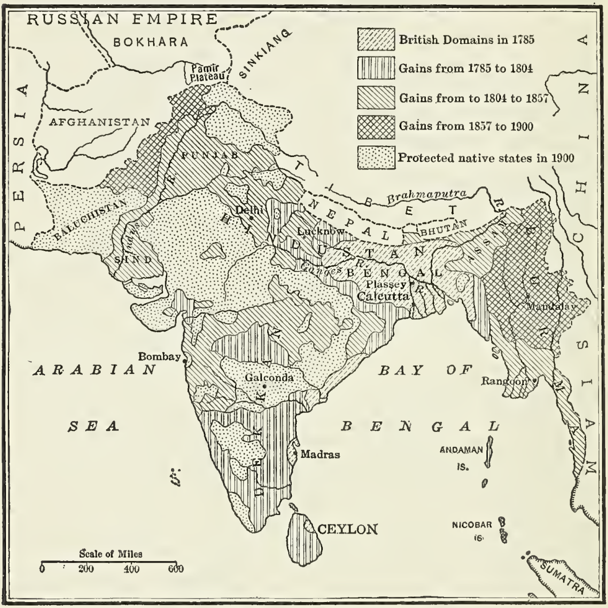
[1] The Premier is the chief of the Cabinet (sec. 348), and hence practically the head of the government.

[2] The English East India Company was chartered in 1600; the French East India Company was chartered in 1664. Each had power to make war and peace and to defend its own interests.


RUSSIAN EMPIRE
BOKHARA
SINKIANG
Pamir Plateau
British Domains in 1785
Gains from 1785 to 1804
Gains from to 1804 to 1857
Gains from 1857 to 1900
Protected native states in 1900
PERSIA
AFGHANISTAN
PUNJAB
CHINA
BALUCHISTAN
Indus
SIND
Delhi
HINDUSTAN
NEPAL
TIBET
Brahmaputra
BHUTAN
Lucknow
ASSAM
Ganges R.
BENGAL
Plassey
Calcutta
BURMA
Mandalay
SIAM
Bombay
ARABIAN SEA
Galconda
DECCAN
BAY OF BENGAL
Rangoon
Madras
ANDAMAN IS.
NICOBAR IS.
CEYLON
SUMATRA
Scale of Miles
0
200
400
600

Growth of British Power in India

In 1756 a native ruler, the nabob of Bengal (bĕn-gôl′), took 146 British prisoners and kept them over night in a room eighteen feet square, with but two small windows. This is known as the "Black Hole of Calcutta." Next morning five sixths of the prisoners were dead. Clive hastened to take vengeance for the outrage. In 1757, at the decisive battle of Plassey, he won the whole great province of Bengal. Thus he became the founder of the British Indian Empire.

A few years later France withdrew from India and left the British to expand their possessions from time to time until they controlled practically the whole land. It was a century later, however, when the British government took over the control of India from the East India Company. The people of India have enjoyed far better government under British rule than they had before, and much of the great wealth of England is due to the rich commerce with the Indian Empire.

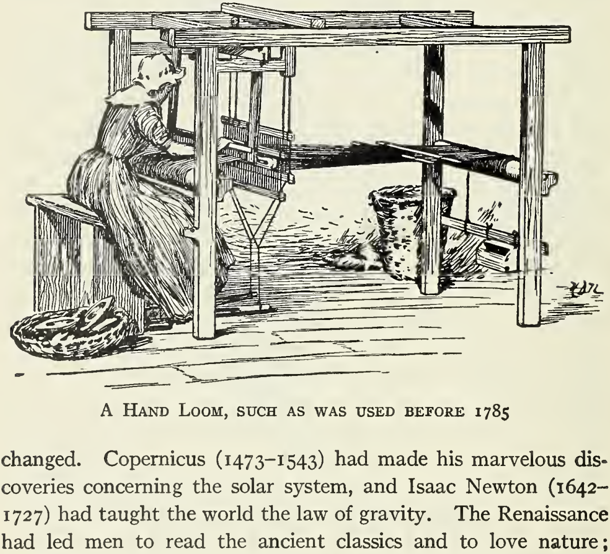
370. **War in Europe and America.** — At the time when Clive was making his conquests in India a tremendous conflagration of war was sweeping over Europe and America. In Europe it was known as the Seven Years' War (1756–1763) and in America as the French and Indian War. In this great conflict France and Austria on the one side were arrayed against Great Britain and Prussia on the other. It was decided in favor of the latter through the surpassing ability of two men — Frederick the Great of Prussia (sec. 360), and William Pitt of England, known later as the Earl of Chatham (chăt′am), who was put virtually at the head of the British government.

Far greater than in America were the military operations in Europe, but the results in Europe were less significant than in the New World. Here, after a straggling war of some years, the decisive battle at Quebec′, in 1759, settled the future of North America. The vast region called Canada became and still remains a British possession. France lost practically all her possessions in America, as in India, while Great Britain took an immense stride in the extension of her empire. Some years later France took a partial revenge by aiding the thirteen British colonies in America to win their independence. This came through the American Revolution, an account of which does not come within the scope of this book. Great Britain, however, was in some measure compensated for her losses in America by acquiring complete control of Australia.

II. INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS

371. Relics of the Middle Ages. — At the close of the Seven Years' War there lingered many things to remind one of the Middle Ages.

Feudalism and serfdom had been very greatly modified in France and England, although in Germany, where there was no strong central government, the condition of the serf was little changed. Copernicus (1473–1543) had made his marvelous discoveries concerning the solar system, and Isaac Newton (1642–1727) had taught the world the law of gravity. The Renaissance had led men to read the ancient classics and to love nature; the Reformation had brought freedom of thought unknown in the Middle Ages. Great painters and sculptors, as Michelangelo and Raphael, had reached the highest consummation of human art.



A HAND LOOM, SUCH AS WAS USED BEFORE 1785

But with all such signs of progress it is an astonishing fact that in the middle of the eighteenth century man had made little industrial progress for thousands of years. His tools and implements for tilling the ground were little better than those of ancient Egypt and Babylonia. All manufacturing was done by hand. The means of travel and transportation had scarcely improved since the time of the Caesars. A few great inventions there were, as gunpowder and printing, but general progress in the industries was yet in the future. This condition was due largely to the fact that man had not applied himself to the careful study of the natural sciences.

Then came an industrial awakening quite as wonderful as the Renaissance of the Middle Ages. More than one hundred and fifty years have passed since, and the spirit then awakened is still in the ascendancy. It has resulted in steam navigation, the telegraph, the telephone, the automobile, the airplane, and thousands of electrical and mechanical machines. Two or three inventions of the early period have given to Great Britain more wealth than her possession of Canada, Australia, and the Indian Empire.

372. Great Inventions. — One of the epoch-making inventions of history is the steam engine. This is merely a machine by which the forceful expansion of water into vapor, caused by heat, is made to turn wheels. The power is transmitted to all sorts of machinery for transportation and manufacturing. In a thousand ways this natural force, bridled by human genius, does the work formerly done by human muscle or by beasts of burden. The invention of the steam engine (about 1770) is attributed to James Watt, a Scotch inventor.[1]

The spinning jenny, invented by Hargreaves about 1765, was improved upon later by Arkwright, Crompton, and others, making a machine by which hundreds of threads are twisted at the same time. This was followed in 1785 by Cartwright's power loom. Watt's engine was soon applied to these machines and steam power took the place of the tedious methods of hand spinning and weaving that had been in use since the dawn of history. These great inventions and many others that followed made Great Britain for the time the workshop of the world. This leadership in manufacturing was brought about partly by the fast-growing commerce that followed British colonial expansion.

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[1] Watt improved on a crude engine that had been used for half a century for pumping water out of mines.

The industrial revolution was only in its infancy at the time of the political convulsion called the French Revolution, to which the following chapters are devoted. After we have finished our study of that revolution, we shall take up the industrial revolution in a later chapter.

Questions and Topics. — I. What countries inaugurated policies of expansion in the eighteenth century? What can you tell of the leading statesman of the reign of George I of Great Britain? What powers had the great trading companies chartered by England and France? Who were Clive and Dupleix? Relate the story of the struggle for India between Great Britain and France. What were the results of the Seven Years' War in Europe, known as the French and Indian War in America?

II. Can you give reasons for the slow industrial progress during medieval times? What is the principle of the steam engine? How can you explain that a few inventions gave England more wealth than all her colonial possessions?

Events and Dates. — Sir Robert Walpole, premier of England, 1721–1742. Battle of Plassey and founding of the British Indian Empire, 1757.

For Further Reading. — The short histories of England, by Cross, Green, Ransome, Cheyney, Andrews, and Gardiner, deal more or less fully with the expansion of England. Jose, *The Growth of the Empire*, treats the subject more extensively and is an excellent work.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

CHAPTER XXXI

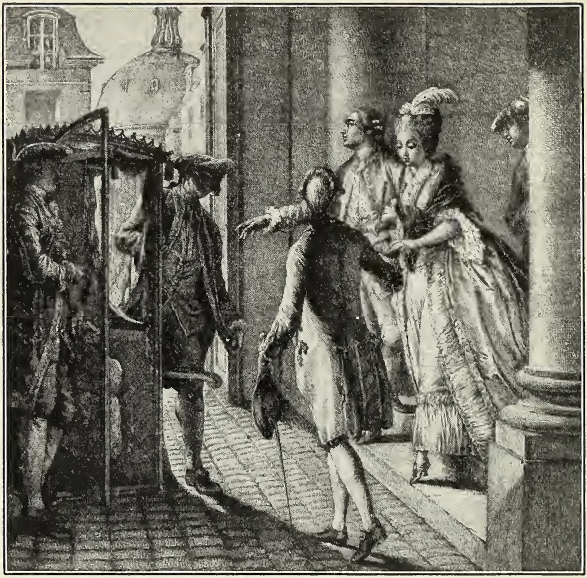
EVE OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

I. Condition of France

373. **The Government.** — France was a typical absolute monarchy during the period of absolutism. The king had absorbed all power to himself. To carry out his will he had a host of agents and officials whom he appointed and dismissed at his pleasure. He had entire control of the army, the navy; he made war and peace; he made the laws of the land and enforced them. Over his twenty-five million subjects the king had the power of life and death. Taxation was wholly under his control, and the public treasury was his private property. During the years immediately preceding the Revolution, the king gave away in presents millions of dollars a year.

The king ruled through ministers and these through great numbers of officials. Not only the nation as a whole, but every province and commune in France was governed secretly by the king's agents. The governor of a province was called the intendant. Often with a cruel hand he wrung taxes from the people, but they had no power to protest or even to petition their superiors.

There was no freedom of speech or of the press. Woe to the author who published a book that had not passed the public censors. A newspaper was not permitted to publish a word against the government or the looting taxgatherers. Nor was there any greater freedom of conscience. The Catholic religion was supreme. Jews and Protestants were not permitted to hold services, and when they did so in secret, they were put to death or sent to the galleys if discovered.



French Lady Entering a Sedan Chair

The sedan chair, used by the upper classes during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, was carried by two "chairmen." It had side windows, a hinged door at the front, and a roof that opened to allow the occupant to stand. It took its name from the town of Sedan, France. This engraving, made in Paris in 1777, shows the elegant costumes worn by the nobility and their servants.

374. **The Privileged Classes.** — The people of France, in the middle of the eighteenth century, were composed of three great classes, — the Nobility, the Clergy, and the common people, often called the Third Estate. Two of these, the nobility and the clergy, each of whom numbered about 140,000, were known as the privileged classes.

Only part of the nobility were the descendants of the feudal lords of earlier times; the greater number had purchased their titles or had been ennobled by the king for other reasons. Many were the privileges of the nobles. They owned one fifth of the land of France, which was exempt from taxation. From many other taxes also they were exempt, but they filled all the offices at the king's court and they alone could hold high positions in the army. Great numbers of the nobles drew large pensions from the treasury and rendered the state no service. They were the drones of society, idle and profligate. Among their privileges was the right to collect feudal dues from the industrious masses and to trample over the fields in their hunting excursions.

The Church of France owned at least one fifth of the land of the whole country, the income from which was very great, to say nothing of the tithes collected from the people. All church property and the clergy were exempt from taxation, but the clergy on occasion voted a donation to the king.

There were two distinct classes of the clergy. The upper class was composed of the high dignitaries, bishops and abbots, generally chosen from the nobility, who drew large salaries and did little. They lived at Versailles as courtiers of the king, in idleness and often in vice. The other class comprised the lower clergy, the parish priests, who lived on meager salaries and worked faithfully and devotedly among the people.

375. **The Common People.** — The Third Estate included the middle and lower classes, of whom there were nearly twenty-five million. Many of the middle class, composed of merchants, manufacturers, physicians, lawyers, and men of letters, were rich and intelligent, but they had no voice in the government and were not eligible to hold office. It was this middle class that brought on the great Revolution. Some of them, like the nobles, by bribery or otherwise, eluded the necessity of paying taxes.

The peasant class, farmers and laborers, were ground down with the burdens of taxation. Though feudalism as a form of government had almost disappeared in France, peasants were still obliged to pay feudal dues (secs. 213–214). Then there were the land tax, the church tax, the salt tax, the income tax, and the tariff duties charged for moving goods from one province to another, up or down or across a river, or from the country to the city. More than half the peasant farmer's earnings had to go for taxes, even four fifths of them in some parts of the country.

If a man neglected to pay his tax a blue-uniformed soldier with a gun came to his home, sat by his fire, slept in his bed, and seized any money that might come into the house, the soldier's wages in addition to the tax. Many a farmer secreted a part of his meager income, and to avoid rousing the suspicion of the taxgatherer, lived in a miserable hovel and let his furniture go to rack.

The nobles had great tracts of game preserves and often at harvest time troops of hunters with hounds and horses would trample over the ripening fields and destroy the crops. But the farmer had no redress. When the hares and deer destroyed his young orchard, or the pigeons devoured his new-sown grain, he dared not lift a hand against them lest he mar the lord's hunting pleasure. The specter of the galleys [1] was always before him. He had no rights; he was a cipher in the government, in society, in everything except the paying of taxes. To his excessive tax burdens was added another burden. He was obliged to work without pay on the roads or other public works from one to three days every week. Certainly France cared little for the welfare of her toiling millions.

II. The Great Writers

376. Voltaire, the Brilliant Writer. — The most conspicuous, witty, and brilliant writer in France if not in the world in the eighteenth century was Voltaire. Born in 1694, the son of a lawyer, he developed early as a writer. But there was no freedom of the press in France, and before he was twenty-five years of age Voltaire had spent a year as a prisoner in the Bastille for having published satirical verses. Later for another offense he was exiled to England, where he spent three years studying the language and literature of that country. We have seen him also at the court of Frederick the Great (sec. 361).

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[1] A galley was a low, single-decked vessel. Criminals were sentenced to serve as galley oarsmen, chained to the deck. The life of a galley slave was one of extreme hardship.

Voltaire was a historian, a poet, and a dramatist. The chief passion of his life was to fight the Catholic Church. He was not an atheist, but the Church in France with its vast non-taxable possessions, its dogmatic teachings, and its great influence with the people, he believed to be an obstacle to progress. He was not friendly to Protestants, but there were few of them in France, and he reserved his shafts of subtle wit and satire for the Catholics. And though his books were often suppressed and he himself was harshly dealt with, his writings had a profound effect on great numbers of his countrymen. He played an important part in preparing his country for revolt.

377. Diderot and the Encyclopedia. — One of the great works that molded public opinion in France during the forty years just preceding the Revolution was the *Encyclopedia*, edited by Diderot (dēd-rō′), a great scholar and philosopher. With him were associated the famous mathematician D'Alembert (dȧ-läɴ-bâr′), and many other scholars.

The first two volumes, published in 1752, were suppressed because some of the articles in them were too free in criticizing religion and royal authority. Diderot, like Voltaire, was sent to the Bastille for a time. But other volumes continued to appear in the years following, and at length, in spite of the protests of the clergy, the government withdrew its opposition. The *Encyclopedia* attacked the abuses in church and state — criminal and tax laws, the slave trade, religious intolerance, and other things. It played a large part in unsettling the public mind with reference to French institutions.

378. Rousseau and the Social Contract. — The *Social Contract*, by Rousseau (ro͞o-sō′; 1712–1778), is a little volume which has had more influence on human government than any other writing of modern times.

Rousseau, a native of Geneva, was a man of excitable temperament and of very irregular and questionable habits. He wrote on many subjects — music, education, and others — but it was his *Social Contract* that gave him universal fame, which is undimmed to this day. It is an essay on government, written in a most fascinating style. Its keynote is that no man has an inherent right to govern his fellow men, that the real sovereign of the nation is the people, and that the people who must obey the laws should make them. These principles have been adopted by nearly all nations of the earth. The *Social Contract* became the keynote, and its author the prophet, of the Revolution.[1]

III. The Benevolent Despots

379. Frederick the Great and Catherine the Great. — The great French writers noticed above made a profound impression not only in France, but in other parts of Europe, notably among the rulers of the period. These rulers remained absolute or despotic; they made no attempt to take the people into partnership with them; but they made a sincere effort to rule their people well and to put into practice some of the new doctrines of the French writers. They were known as the Benevolent Despots.

Among these were Frederick of Prussia and Catherine of Russia, both of whom have been noticed in an earlier chapter.

Frederick the Great refused to share with his people any part of his government, but he worked day and night for their welfare. He transformed Prussia into a great power and devoted his life to making his people prosperous.

Catherine of Russia, after gratifying her morbid desire for place and power, had left a wide margin of energy which she sincerely devoted to the welfare of her people. She was greatly interested in the French philosophers. She subscribed for the *Encyclopedia* and invited its editor to visit her in her palace. In order to put into practice some of the new ideas of reform she called a great assembly of the many races and classes of her empire to meet at Moscow. Her proposals of reform to this body were of a high order, but a war with Turkey broke up the meeting and nothing came of it.

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[1] Other great writers of this school were Montesquieu (mŏn-tĕs-kū′ or môɴ-tĕs-kē-û′, d. 1755), who wrote *The Spirit of the Laws*, and Beccaria (bĕk-kä-rē′ä), an Italian who wrote a scathing book against the harshness of the criminal laws.

380. Joseph II of Austria (1765–1790). Among the enlightened or benevolent despots of the second half of the eighteenth century the best was Joseph II of Austria. An admirer of the French philosophers, he determined to put their doctrines into practice. Joseph, the son of the great Austrian empress, Maria Theresa, was a man of strictly correct habits and a prodigious worker. Brushing aside the theory of the divine right of kings, he considered himself the servant of his people. Not only did he believe in reforms, he also set about putting them into practice.

Among other reforms Joseph abolished serfdom and established religious toleration. He cut down greatly the expenses of his court; he built colleges, hospitals, and factories. He established the freedom of the press to such a degree that his enemies could publish libels and attacks against him. There can be no doubt of Joseph's desire to rule well. But he, like the other despots and like the French writers, had not taken into account the deep-rooted habits and traditions of the people. In his belief that his reign of intelligence would be eagerly received, he put forth his best efforts. But society was not ready for such drastic changes. They awakened opposition on all sides, and his well-meant efforts produced little permanent effect.

SIDE TALK

Cagliostro. — A few years before the Revolution there appeared in Paris a very remarkable character who called himself Count Cagliostro (käl-yôs′trō), an assumed name. He was one of the most successful swindlers known in history and has been called the king of liars. Thomas Carlyle wrote a biography under the title, *The Arch Quack*.

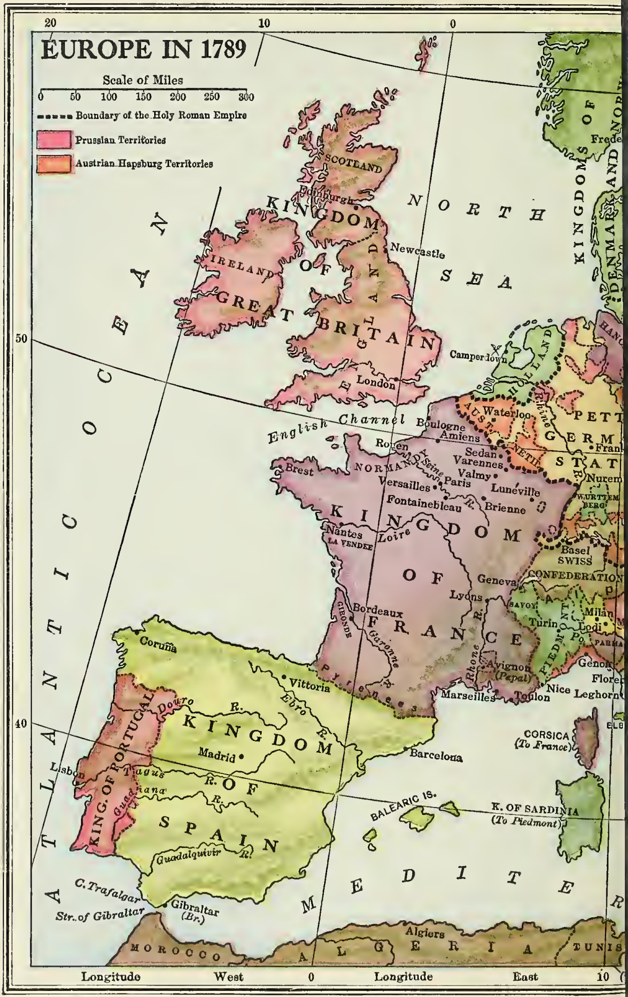
Born in Palermo, Sicily, Cagliostro became notorious in childhood for trickery, theft, and forgery, and while yet a youth was forced to flee from his native town. Then began his astonishing career of travel and deception. He went to Egypt, where, with a little knowledge of chemistry, he made much money by pretending to change baser fabrics into silk. Returning to Europe, he married a wife who quickly fell into his ways. They traveled over Europe with a coach and four horses, visiting nearly every capital and often finding access to the highest social circles. They sold potions and charms and pretended to heal the sick and restore youth to the aged. They carried a wine of Egypt which they sold in drops to restore youth and beauty to the old and wrinkled. Both were young and handsome, but they declared that they were past sixty, had a son in the Dutch army, and had been restored to youth by their own medicine. Their dupes numbered thousands, some of whom were among the nobility. One rich cardinal yielded himself wholly into the power of Cagliostro. But now and then their dupes, whose eyes were opened to the trickery, became troublesome; hence, the charlatan and his wife suffered imprisonment in London, Paris, and other cities. In Paris they spent nine months in the Bastille. At length Cagliostro, having wandered to Rome, met his final downfall. The church authorities had long had their eyes upon him. He was arrested, tried, and condemned to spend the remainder of his life in prison, where he died a few years later (1795).

Questions and Topics. — I. Describe the French government just before the Revolution. How did the king govern the outlying provinces? What advantage has a free press in any country? Name the three classes of people in France and describe each. What special privileges did the privileged classes have? What were the game preserves? In what ways did the masses serve the classes?

II. What was the attitude of Voltaire toward the church? In what literary fields did he excel? In what way did the *Encyclopedia* influence public opinion? Have you a cyclopedia in your school library? What is the most famous work produced by Rousseau?

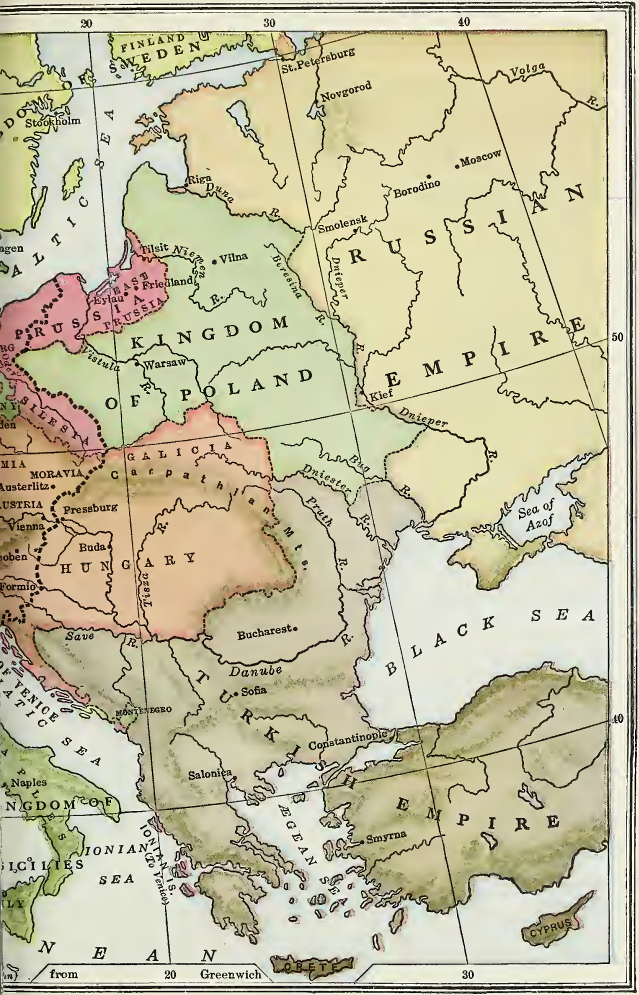
III. What does the term, "benevolent despot," signify? What serious mistake did the benevolent despots make with regard to their relation to their people? Give reasons why it is best for a people to have a part in making their own laws. Give an estimate of the life and character of Joseph II of Austria.

For Further Reading. — Lowell, *The Eve of the French Revolution.* This is the best account in English, in a single volume, of the conditions in France just before the Revolution. Briefer accounts may be found in any of the short histories of Modern Europe. Robinson's *Readings in European History*, vol. ii.



EUROPE IN 1789

Scale of Miles
0 50 100 150 200 250 300
Boundary of the Holy Roman Empire
Prussian Territories
Austrian Hapsburg Territories
20
10
0
50
40
Longitude West
0
Longitude East
10
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
English Channel
MEDITERRANEAN
KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN
SCOTLAND
Edinburgh
ENGLAND
IRELAND
Newcastle
London
Camperdown
HOLLAND
AUST. NETH.
Waterloo
Rhine R.
Boulogne
Amiens
Rouen
Seine R.
NORMANDY
Brest
Sedan
Varennes
Valmy
Paris
Versailles
Lunéville
Fontainebleau
Brienne
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Nantes
LA VENDEE
Loire R.
Basel
SWISS CONFEDERATION
Geneva
Lyons
Bordeaux
GIRONDE
Garonne R.
Rhone R.
Avignon (Papal)
Marseilles
Toulon
Nice
SAVOY
PIEDMONT
Turin
Milan
Lodi
Po R.
PARMA
Genoa
Leghorn
Flore
ELB
CORSICA (To France)
K. OF SARDINIA (To Piedmont)
BALEARIC IS.
Pyrenees
Coruña
Vittoria
Ebro R.
Douro R.
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
Madrid
Tagus R.
Guadiana R.
Guadalquivir R.
Barcelona
KING. OF PORTUGAL
Lisbon
C. Trafalgar
Str. of Gibraltar
Gibraltar (Br.)
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
Algiers
TUNIS
KINGDOMS OF DENMARK AND NORW
DENMARK
Frede
HANO
GERMAN STAT
PETT
Frank
Nurem
WURTTEMBERG


20
30
40
FINLAND
SWEDEN
St.Petersburg
Volga
R.
Novgorod
Stockholm
Moscow
Borodino
Riga
Duna
R.
Smolensk
RUSSIAN
EMPIRE
agen
Tilsit
Niemen
R.
Vilna
Beresina
R.
Dnieper
EAST
PRUSSIA
Friedland
Eylau
PRUSSIA
KINGDOM
OF POLAND
Vistula
R.
Warsaw
Oder
SILESIA
Kief
Dnieper
R.
50
GALICIA
Carpathian Mts.
Bug
R.
Dniester
R.
Pruth
R.
MORAVIA
Austerlitz
AUSTRIA
Pressburg
Vienna
Buda
HUNGARY
Tisza
R.
Sea of Azof
BLACK SEA
Formio
Save
R.
Bucharest
Danube
R.
TURKISH EMPIRE
Sofia
MONTENEGRO
Constantinople
Salonica
ADRIATIC SEA
Naples
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
SICILIES
40
ÆGEAN SEA
Smyrna
IONIAN SEA
IONIAN IS. (To Venice)
CYPRUS
CRETE
N E A N
from
20
Greenwich
30

CHAPTER XXXII

THE EARLY PERIOD OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

I. The King and the States-General

The great upheaval in European society known as the French Revolution[1] was at hand. The Renaissance had brought intellectual freedom; the Reformation had brought liberty of conscience; the French Revolution broke the political shackles, the royal tyranny of the ages, and brought the recognition of the rights of the common man.

381. Causes of the Revolution. — The trampling of the rights of the common people in the dust by the privileged classes, and a growing consciousness of the increasing power of the common people, especially of the middle class, were among the general causes of the outbreak. But there were more specific and immediate causes.

The annual deficit in the public treasury had become alarming. Coupled with this was the exasperating fact that the frivolous privileged classes refused to curb their reckless extravagance. Thousands of idle pensioners swarmed about Paris and Versailles, drawing their regular stipends from the treasury. The support of the army cost less than the pay of the officers. Of these there were 36,000 on the payroll and only 13,000 in actual service.

The American Revolution hastened the crisis in France. The French efforts to aid America greatly increased the national deficit and thus brought nearer the day of reckoning. Moreover, the French people were proud of the career of Lafayette in America, they pondered the Declaration of Independence, and they rejoiced over the defeat of Burgoyne and the surrender of Cornwallis. All this, not merely because of their hatred of Great Britain, which had robbed them of Canada, but because of a new-born interest in liberty and democracy. An English traveler in France declared that the American Revolution had laid the foundations for a revolution in France.

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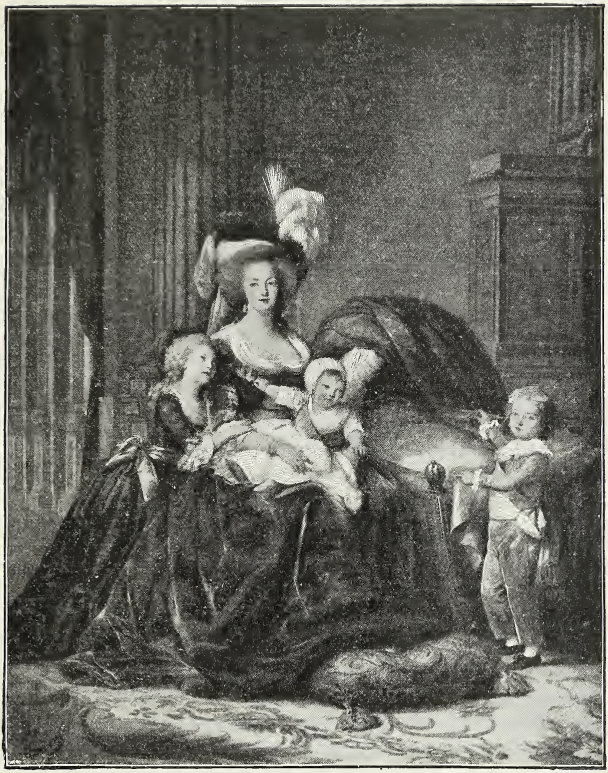
[1] The word revolution, borrowed from mechanics, means a turning round. In politics it means changing from one form of government to another.

382. **Louis XV** (1715–1774). — The wars of the Grand Monarch, Louis XIV, as noted in an earlier chapter, left France in a weakened condition. On his death in 1715 his successor was but a child, his great-grandson, who ascended the throne as Louis XV. Spending his boyhood with a shameless tutor who led him into vice rather than virtue, the unhappy lad on reaching manhood was ill fitted to wear a crown and govern a nation. He spent his days in debauchery and frivolity, and the nation almost went to pieces.

For having such a king France had to pay the penalty. Dupleix with all his talents was unappreciated and was recalled (sec. 369); India was given up. The valiant Montcalm′, the noblest Frenchman of them all, was not properly supported, and Canada was lost (sec. 370). The national debt piled high while France was losing in all her wars. The thoughtless king had sense enough to foresee the coming storm. He expressed the hope that the machine would run itself as long as he lived, "and after us, the deluge," he declared.

383. **Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette.** — Louis XVI, who succeeded his grandfather Louis XV in 1774, was a man of correct habits and sound morals, but he was a weak ruler. He was not wanting in courage; and his ultimate motive, his sincere desire to do the best in his power for his people, was beyond question. But he was utterly wanting in the power of leadership and in the ability to appreciate talent in others. He was slow of speech, slow of thought, and neither quick nor accurate in making a decision. In person he was short, fat, dull, and unattractive.

Louis had married Marie Antoinette (mȧ-rē′ äɴ-twȧ-nĕt′),



Marie Antoinette and her Children

From a painting by Madame Lebrun, in the Versailles Palace. Marie Antoinette was unpopular both at the French court and with the people almost from the time of her marriage. The ladies of the court disliked her because she made fun of their grand manners. The people considered her frivolous and extravagant. They declared that she was nothing but a "foreigner," and generally called her "the Austrian." She had four children — two daughters and two sons. The younger daughter died in infancy, in 1787; and the older son died at the age of seven, in 1789. The younger son, who survived his parents, is shown in the picture as the baby on the queen's lap.

the beautiful sister of Joseph II of Austria (sec. 380), and daughter of the famous Maria Theresa. The two were not well matched. Louis was too phlegmatic and plodding to be a companion to the gay and girlish princess. She sought her companionship elsewhere, often among questionable characters. The queen was no doubt virtuous, but her free and reckless manner in speech and action gave rise to many a scandal. Moreover, the French queen had the narrowest conception of human nature. She knew only the little circle in which she moved. That the common people were not utterly sordid, that they might have feelings and aspirations, was beyond the comprehension of Marie Antoinette. And when the storm broke all these things were remembered against her, — and against her husband.

384. **Louis and Turgot.** — There was one man in France who could have averted the Revolution. It was Turgot (tür-gō′), one of the greatest statesmen and economists of his time. He was a second Colbert (sec. 352). In 1774, the year when Louis XVI came to the throne, he called Turgot to be his chief minister. Turgot saw whither the country was drifting, and he laid hold on the finances with the hand of a master.

He reformed the methods of taxgathering, lowered the taxes of the peasants, and abolished the forced labor on the public highways. Furthermore, he determined to tax the lands of the nobles and the clergy, to cut down great numbers of shameless pensions, and to abolish useless offices. Other radical changes also this great reformer had in mind when his public career was cut short. He was hated by the nobles and even by the queen because he disturbed their pleasures. The king had not the stamina to resist the clamor against his great minister, who was therefore dismissed after twenty months' service. Even in that time he had left a surplus of income over expenditure in the treasury.[1]

385. **The States-General.** — After the dismissal of Turgot the old corrupt régime was quickly reinstated. The annual

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[1] Later the king called Necker, a rich banker, to manage the finances. Necker also attempted to introduce reforms, and like Turgot was forced to retire.

deficit increased alarmingly. The country's credit fell until it was no longer possible to borrow.

In despair the king called an Assembly of Notables, in 1787, composed of the higher nobility and clergy. When the distress of the country was laid before this body, and it was proposed to tax their lands, a howl of protest and indignation arose. The notables deemed it a disgrace for them to pay taxes. The assembly adjourned and nothing was done.

"The States-General" soon became the cry all over France. The States-General was a body representing all France, — nobles, clergy, and the common people. It dated back in its origin to the Middle Ages. Its first meeting was held in 1302. It differed from the British Parliament in that it had no lawmaking power. The only function of the States-General was to advise with the king, apprise him of conditions, and aid him to carry out his purposes. For three centuries the States-General met at irregular intervals, but when France became an absolute monarchy it was no longer called together. No meeting had been called for 175 years. It was the last resort, but the country was in distress and the notables with their extensive untaxed lands had refused to come to the rescue. Could they only have foreseen what was to happen within one short year! The king at length yielded to the universal demand. He ordered the election of delegates to the States-General.

386. Meeting of the States-General (May 5, 1789). — All France was profoundly stirred by the calling of the States-General. All taxpayers, even the peasants, were permitted to take part in the elections, and they had become thoroughly interested. They were also invited to present their grievances, and the numbers presented were amazing. The pent-up bitterness and wrath of ages had found expression at last.

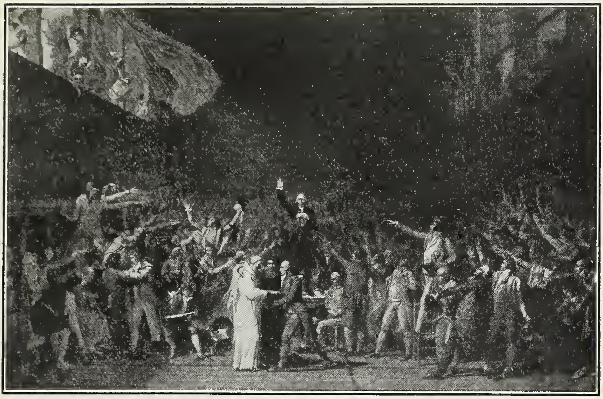
It was clearly to be seen now that the old conditions were doomed. In some parts of the kingdom the peasants were already refusing to pay their feudal dues, or they were even driving the noble hunter from their fields at the point of a gun. The privileged classes quickly saw the handwriting on the wall. Many of them were now ready to make concessions, to pay taxes, and give up many of their special privileges. But it was too late. What a year ago would have been joyfully welcomed by the people they now brushed aside unheeded. The people had been asked to send their delegates and to present their grievances. They had done both and with eagerness they would await the outcome.

Under these conditions, and in the midst of great throngs of excited people who had gathered from all over the kingdom, the 1200 elected delegates of the States-General met at the royal city of Versailles.

387. **The Oath of the Tennis Court.** — The enthusiasm of the expectant multitudes was chilled at the outstart by a painful deadlock. The delegates elected numbered about 1200, half of whom represented the common people or Third Estate, while each of the other orders had 300. The delegates of the privileged orders insisted that the three classes meet separately, each having a veto on the action of the other two. By this plan every measure of reform that the commons might propose could be thwarted by the upper classes. The commons would listen to no such arrangement. They determined that the three orders should meet as one body, every man having a vote.

Day after day the commons sat in their hall and waited. Five weeks passed; nothing was done. At length the Third Estate resolved itself into the National Assembly, declaring that as it represented ninety-six per cent of the nation, the other two orders might properly be ignored. This was a bold and revolutionary move. The classes were alarmed at this radical action by the masses.

A day or two later the king ordered that the hall in which the commons met be closed against them, and next morning when the delegates arrived they found the doors locked and sentinels on guard. Thereupon these representatives of the people met in a near-by tennis court and there took a solemn oath that they



THE OATH OF THE TENNIS COURT, JUNE 20, 1789

From a painting by David.

would never separate until they had established a constitution for France.[1]

388. Victory of the Commons. — Many deputies of the clergy joined the commons, their sympathies being with the people rather than with the privileged classes. Alarmed at the drift of things, the king called a joint session of the orders and, after making an address with a promise of reforms, commanded the three orders to disperse and meet as separate bodies. The nobles and upper clergy followed him as he withdrew, but the commons sat still. Later the king's agent returned to remind them haughtily of the royal command. Then rose Mirabeau (mē-rȧ-bō′), who was to prove himself the leading statesman of the Revolution, and in a voice of thunder said, " Go tell your master that we are here by the will of the people and that nothing but the point of the bayonet will drive us hence."

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[1] On this account the National Assembly came to be known as the Constituent Assembly. With us it would be called a constitutional convention. The French idea of a constitution came from America. Two years earlier, 1787, the American federal constitution had been framed; it and some of our state constitutions had been printed and widely read in France.
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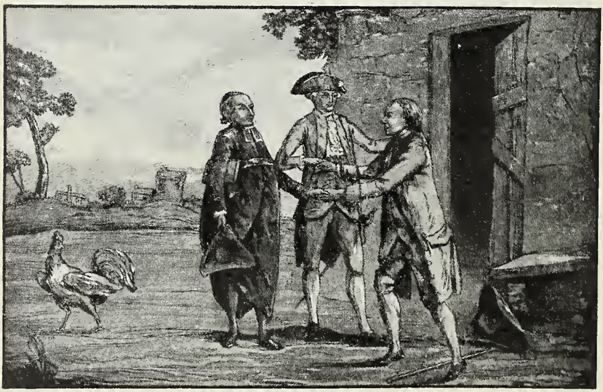
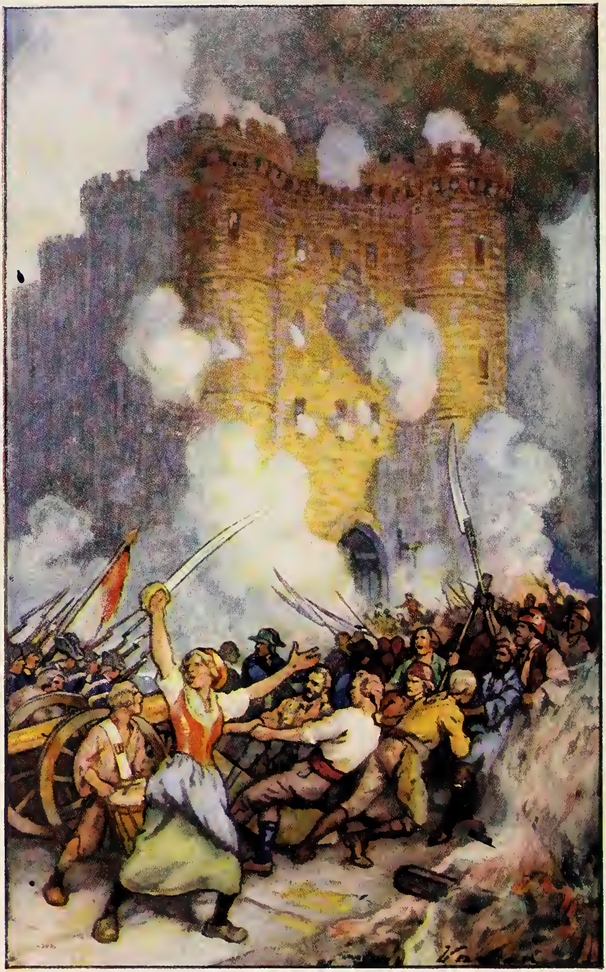
This was open defiance of kingly authority, — a thing unheard of in France for centuries. By this time the city of Paris, but a few miles away, was in an uproar. The wrath of the people was rising against the king and the upper classes. The king, becoming alarmed, at last ordered the nobles and clergy to sit with the commons in joint sessions — just what the commons had demanded from the beginning. The victory was a vital one for the people.



THE THREE ESTATES

A contemporary cartoon, showing the Third Estate welcoming the nobles and the clergy to the ranks of the National Assembly, June 30, 1789.

389. **Fall of the Bastille.** — Great was the excitement in Paris during the second week of July, 1789. The ruffians and idlers of the great city were joined by thousands of vagabonds from all sections. The king stationed several thousand veteran soldiers near the city to overawe the National Assembly, and it was rumored that they were about to make an attack on the unarmed people. The better middle class then joined hands with the ruffians. They threw up barricades in the streets and sacked



Storming the Bastille

every gunshop in Paris for arms. The soldiers failed to appear, and the maddened crowd spent its fury on the Bastille.

The Bastille was a great stone fort and prison in Paris. It was not a penitentiary, but a prison for state offenders, an emblem of absolute royal authority and of feudal tyranny. On this account it was hateful to lovers of liberty.

The attack on the Bastille was led by a young journalist, Camille Desmoulins (kȧ-mēl′ dā-mo͞o-lăɴ′), who leaped upon a table in a public garden and with wild gestures shouted to the mob, " To arms, to arms ! " All night, and all the next day and night, the lawless crowd surged through the streets. Then they made their way to the Bastille, where many arms were kept. After some hours of onslaught the garrison yielded and the great prison fell into the hands of the mob. They looted it from cellar to garret. They killed its defenders and cut off the head of the commander and carried it exultantly on a pike through the streets of the city. Late at night the king at Versailles was awakened from sleep and told of the event. " This is riot," he exclaimed. " No," answered the messenger, " it is revolution."

The fall of the Bastille[1] was a great event in French history. It marked the end of feudal oppression and the dawn of liberty. To this day the French people celebrate the day of its fall, July 14, as we celebrate the fourth of the same month as the birthday of liberty.

When the news of what the mob had done in Paris reached the provinces, the people became intoxicated with their new-born freedom. In reckless fury they stormed the castles of their noble masters, and the masters fled for their lives. Many of the castles and many abbeys of the monks were burned to the ground ; others were ransacked from top to bottom. Whatever else the peasants did, they were sure to destroy the parchments, the feudal titles to their little farms.

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[1] At the time of the storming there were only seven prisoners found within the walls. These were carried in triumph in the procession that marched through the city, at the head of the mob. Bits of armor, handcuffs, and chains from the prison were flourished also. The key of the Bastille, presented to George Washington by Lafayette, is among the treasured relics at Mount Vernon. The site of the Bastille is now marked only by a row of white stones. The open square about it is known as the Place of the Bastille.

II. Work of the National Assembly

390. Leaders of the Revolution. — A great movement will develop great characters. So it was with the French Revolution. But it happened that the great leaders were all on one side. The royal party developed no strong man. Many of the effeminate nobility fled the country. The weak and vacillating king was left to cope with forces that he could not master. He was like a feeble boatman caught in a mighty whirl of rolling waters and overwhelmed. On the other side we find some real leaders.

The greatest figure of the Revolution was Count Mirabeau. Rejected by his own class as a delegate to the States-General, he was elected by the people. Tall and masterful in appearance, towering above other men, profoundly convinced of his own strength, with a shock of powdered hair that shook like a lion's mane when he spoke before the National Assembly, he rose to every occasion with an eloquence that was overpowering. Mirabeau had led a life of dissipation and he had much prejudice to overcome. His espousal of the cause of the people was no doubt sincere. But he was cautious, never radical. His vision was that of a statesman. It is possible that the Revolution might have taken a different course but for the untimely death of Mirabeau.

One of the stanch leaders of the Assembly was Siéyès (syā-yĕs′), who was elected by the commons of Paris and who became a champion of the people's cause. Before the election of the States-General, he had published a stirring pamphlet and touched a popular chord by his triple question, "What is the Third Estate? Everything. What has it been so far to the state? Nothing. What does it ask to be? Something." Siéyès did more than any one else in framing the new constitution.

Another conspicuous figure was the Marquis de Lafayette. Recently returned from America, where he had served valiantly under Washington, he was well known throughout Europe. Though a noble by birth and training, a favorite in his youth of the royal family, at heart he was a lover of liberty and he despised the French system of government.

391. Renunciation of Feudal Privileges. — The greatest day in the French Revolution was August 4, 1789. On that day the nobles renounced their privileges. The session of the National Assembly continued far into the night. One after another the nobles rose and gave up the special privileges which they and their ancestors had enjoyed since far back in the Middle Ages.[1]

Amid great enthusiasm the Assembly then passed a decree declaring that henceforth the taxes upon all classes should be alike in accordance with their property, and that henceforth all citizens, without distinction of birth, should be eligible to any office or dignity.[2]

Here in a nutshell is the whole substance of the Revolution. Already the king had yielded part of the governing power to the people. The equalizing now, on this night of August 4, of the rights of the people with the rights of their former masters, completed the work — all done within three months of the meeting of the States-General.

392. The Problem of a New Government. — But this was a work of pure destruction. The old fabric did not suit the age. It had to be torn down, and it was. Now remained the more difficult work of construction, of building a great government on a new plan. Why should it not be done without violence? After the American Revolution the American people got together deliberately and sensibly and established a national government without bloodshed. Could the French do this? But the French were of a different temperament, and were utterly without experience in self-government.

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[1] The radicals refused to give any credit for this act of the nobles, declaring that the uprising of the people throughout the country had already accomplished the same thing.

[2] A few weeks later the famous declaration of the Rights of Man was adopted by the Assembly.

The work of construction was long and laborious and often bloody. The nation swayed between violent disorder and republicanism on the one hand and reëstablished monarchy on the other, and eighty years passed before it settled into its present form of government, which seems to promise to endure. But with all the tossings and changes from that time until now the people of France have never lost for a day the priceless boon of equal rights which had been won in those three months ending on that memorable fourth of August, 1789.

393. **The Mob Goes to Versailles.** — Comparative quiet reigned for a time after the abolishing of privileges, but the restless masses of the metropolis soon again showed signs of disorder. Led by violent agitators such as Marat (mȧ-rȧ′) and Desmoulins, they came to distrust the middle class as well as the nobles, and to believe themselves the only "patriots."

Moreover, the crops of the preceding summer were meager, the city was filled with idlers, and, in short, Paris was hungry. Great crowds paraded the streets crying for bread. There was still a profound respect for the king, and it was believed that if he knew of their distress he would aid them.

Goaded by hunger, a great crowd of women set out for Versailles (October 5). Weary and haggard, thousands of women and a smaller number of men, including the riffraff of Paris, tramped through the mud and rain twelve miles to the royal city. Lafayette, commander of the newly organized volunteer National Guards, followed to keep order, and only partly succeeded. All night the howling, bedraggled multitude paraded the streets of Versailles. In the early morning the mob broke into the palace and would have slain the queen but for the fact that some of her faithful guards enabled her to escape by giving their lives in her defense.

Owing to the demands of the crowd and the advice of Lafayette, the king decided to remove to Paris. The royal carriage, accompanied by thousands of haggard creatures, was driven to the great city. "We have the baker, the baker's wife and the baker's little boy," they cried jocularly, referring to the king and the queen and their little son. The palace of the Tuileries (twēl-rē′) now became the royal residence. The National Assembly also was transferred to Paris.

The change was most unfortunate, for the lower elements of Paris were fast becoming dominant and would soon by violent uprisings be able to overawe both king and Assembly. Mirabeau foresaw this and urged the removal of king and Assembly to an outlying town. But nothing was done, and what he predicted came to pass.

394. **Mirabeau.** — During the next year and a half the strong man in the Assembly was Mirabeau. He believed that the salvation of France lay in establishing a limited monarchy. He stood for a middle conservative course, being at once the adviser of the king and of the radicals. Both mistrusted him and his task was herculean.

Mirabeau made great headway in the difficult task he had set for himself — to strike a balance and effect a peaceful compromise between the royalist party and the wild forces of the Revolution. More and more the extremes were coming to respect his judgment. But the weight of his labors was too heavy; he reeled under the burden. His life of dissipation had weakened his stalwart frame, and this greatest Frenchman of the time passed away on April 2, 1791. Noisy Paris was hushed to silence at the death of Mirabeau, and his funeral was the largest ever known in France. Mirabeau's prophetic words came true, that the monarchy would totter and fall and its ruins would become a prey of factions; also, that the Revolution, like Saturn, would devour its own children.[1]

395. **Clubs and Parties.** — The violence of the rabble of Paris was increased by the flood of pamphlets and newspapers published

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[1] In Greek and Roman mythology, the god Saturn or Cronus was for a time the ruler of the world, and the father of Vesta, Ceres, Juno, Pluto, Neptune, and Jupiter (sec. 60). To prevent his children from growing up and deposing him, he swallowed them all except Jupiter, who was saved by his mother. Jupiter overthrew Saturn and compelled him to disgorge the other gods.

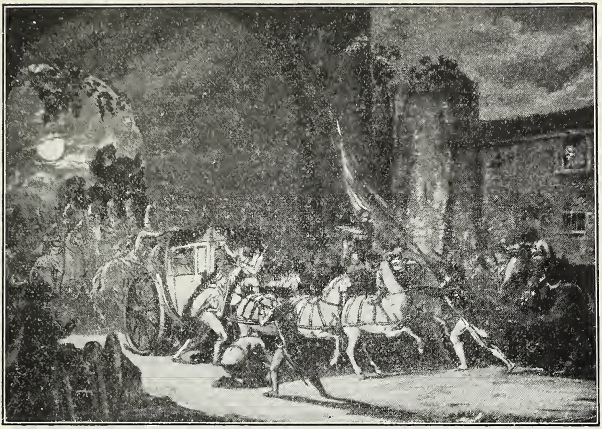
by the leading agitators, and by debating clubs that sprang up in all quarters. Coffee houses and various other resorts became the meeting places where exciting questions of the day were vigorously discussed. Two of these clubs grew into political parties and became national in scope.

The first of the radical parties was the Cordelier′ party. Led by wily agitators, it did much to keep the lower classes stirred up against the government. Another of the early parties was the Jac′obin party, so called from the building in which it was organized. This party was at first more moderate than the Cordeliers, but it grew more radical; it organized branches in all parts of the country, and at length, as we shall see, it gained complete control of the government of France. It was the mother of many wild uprisings in Paris, and of the Reign of Terror. Its most conspicuous leader was Robespierre (rō-bes-pyâr′).

The Girondist (jĭ-rŏn′dist) party (from Gironde, the province from which its leaders came) was of later and quite different origin; it was very important for a time as the most formidable rival of the Jacobins.

396. The Emigration; the Flight of the King. — In the summer of 1789, when it became clear that the masses would prevail over the classes in the great French struggle, the nobles began to leave the country in large numbers. They made their headquarters in German territory on the Rhine, and from there they stirred up all the trouble they could against their native land. Among the "emigrants" were the two younger brothers of the king.

After the death of Mirabeau the king and queen felt more than ever that their personal safety in Paris was endangered. Day after day and night after night the lawless mob surged through the streets and became more and more threatening. The royal family determined on secret flight. At midnight, disguised as a valet, Louis XVI with his family escaped from the city. By relays of swift horses their carriage rumbled away for many miles, almost to the border of France. But being recognized at Varennes (vȧ-rĕn′), they were apprehended and brought back to Paris.



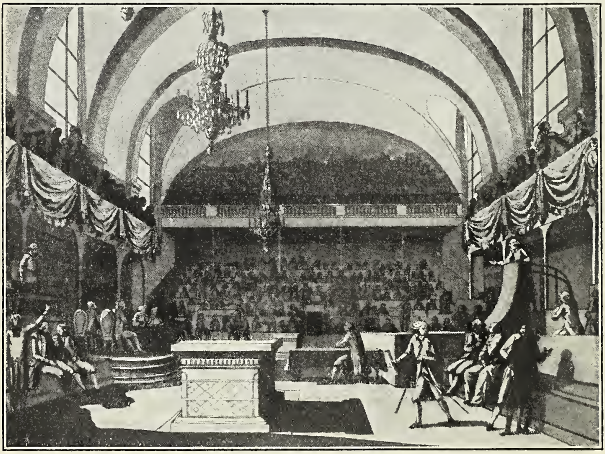
HALTING THE ROYAL FAMILY AT VARENNES

From a contemporary print. The royal family traveled in a great coach built for the purpose. The roads were bad, and the traveling carriage was heavy, but all went well until, at a point near Varennes, the king put his head out of the window and was recognized by the likeness of his features to the profile stamped on the French coins. The man who thus discovered the royal flight jumped on a horse, dashed into Varennes and roused the citizens to stop the coach. A messenger was dispatched to Paris, and shortly after, under the escort of members of the National Assembly, the royal family was compelled to return.

The people feared that if the king left France he would raise armies against her in an effort to recover his lost power, and never again was he permitted to leave the city.

397. Work of the National Assembly. — A few weeks after the meeting of the States-General, as we have seen (sec. 387), the Third Estate resolved itself into the National Assembly and took the Oath of the Tennis Court that it would give France a constitution. Two and a half years were required to accomplish this great work. France fell almost into a state of anarchy while the Assembly slowly ground out the constitution.

As this constitution was in force less than one year it is needless to analyze it at length. Only a few of the main features can be mentioned. It established a constitutional or limited monarchy; it retained the king as executive, but gave him too little power. The governing power was vested in a Legislative Assembly to be elected by men who paid taxes equaling three days' labor. It formed a government of the middle class.



Hall of the National Assembly in Paris

From a contemporary print. The States-General which met in May, 1789, had adopted the name National Assembly. When the mob compelled the king to move to Paris from Versailles the Assembly followed and convened in a hall near the Tuileries. From the speaker's rostrum at the right of the picture the Assembly was addressed at various times by the leaders of the Revolution, including Lafayette and Mirabeau. The mob filled the galleries, hissing or applauding the speakers. Those who could not crowd inside stood without and were informed by signals from the windows of what was going on within.

The royal party was displeased because the king was made little more than a figurehead; the lower classes were displeased because a property test excluded at least a million men from the ballot. Above all, the Catholic Church was displeased. The National Assembly seized all the church lands in France and provided that the clergy be paid their salaries out of the public treasury. It also required that the clergy take an oath of fidelity to the new constitution. Great numbers of them could not do this conscientiously and they refused. Henceforth there was strife between the church and the forces of the Revolution.

But the National Assembly did some things of great and permanent importance. It obliterated the old province boundaries and divided France into eighty-three departments; and it equalized taxes.[1]

The new constitution completed, the National Assembly dissolved, September 30, 1791, and was succeeded by the newly-elected Legislative Assembly. The new government began auspiciously. The absolute monarchy had been changed to a limited one. Many believed that the Revolution was over, but in reality only the first phase of it had closed.

Side Talk

The Diamond Necklace. — The affair of the diamond necklace, apparently trivial, played its part in bringing about the French Revolution. A man named Boehmer, the crown jeweler, knowing that Queen Marie Antoinette was very fond of costly jewelry, made a beautiful necklace of the most expensive jewels that could be found in Europe and tried to sell it to her. Its price was $320,000. But the queen, who had become a mother, took great interest in her children and now cared less for jewelry than before. Knowing also that the people criticized her for spending too much money for finery, she refused to buy the necklace.

At this time Cardinal de Rohan (rō-äɴ′), a man of shallow mind and dissolute life, hovered around the French court, but did not enjoy the royal favor. It seems that he, in company with a woman named La Motte, as dissolute as himself, formed a plot to deceive the jeweler by making him believe that the queen had asked them to secure the necklace for her and to give him her notes signed by her own hand, the payment to be made later. Thus the cardinal and the La Motte woman secured the necklace. They tore it to pieces and sold the jewels for large sums of money.

When Boehmer attempted to collect his money from the queen he discovered that she had never purchased the necklace and that the notes he held were pure forgeries. The cardinal and his accomplice were brought to trial and both were obliged to flee from France.

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[1] Before the Revolution taxes were very much higher in some provinces than in others. Most of the new departments were named after rivers and mountains. To the present they remain as the National Assembly fixed them, with few exceptions.

The scandal became the talk of the town in every village and hamlet in France, and every court of Europe. There is scarcely a doubt that Marie Antoinette was entirely innocent; but her enemies spread the story that she had conspired to obtain the necklace in this fraudulent way and then to refuse to acknowledge her signature to the notes. A great many people believed this, and the belief no doubt had something to do with weakening the monarchy and hastening the Revolution.

Questions and Topics. — I. What great change came to the world through the Renaissance? the Reformation? the French Revolution? Name some causes of the deficit in the French treasury. Describe the character of Louis XV; of Louis XVI; of Marie Antoinette. Why was not Turgot given a free hand in reforming the government? What reforms did he succeed in bringing about? Give the early history of the States-General. Why did the king call it to meet in 1789? In what way did it differ from the British Parliament? Describe the taking of the Oath of the Tennis Court; the fall of the Bastille.

II. Who were the leaders of the Revolution? Why is August 4, 1789, a significant date? What did you learn in your American history about Lafayette? Who was Mirabeau? Describe the clubs and parties; emigration of the nobles; the flight of the king. Describe the work of the National Assembly. What is meant by equalizing taxes?

Events and Dates. — Meeting of the States-General and beginning of the Revolution, 1789. Fall of the Bastille, July 14, 1789 (French national holiday). Death of Mirabeau, 1791.

For Further Reading. — Every school library should have one or two histories of the French Revolution. Among the best are Stephens, *History of the French Revolution*, 2 vols.; Taine, *The French Revolution*, 3 vols. translated from the French, and shorter accounts by Fyffe in his *History of Modern Europe*, and Mathews, *French Revolution*.

CHAPTER XXXIII

FALL OF THE MONARCHY; FIRST FRENCH REPUBLIC

I. THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY, OCTOBER 1, 1791, TO SEPTEMBER 20, 1792

398. A New Set of Leaders. — At a foolish moment of self-denial the National Assembly had voted that none of its members should be eligible to the new Assembly that was to carry the constitution into effect. The 745 members of the new Legislative Assembly, therefore, were without experience, mostly young lawyers and journalists, burning with enthusiasm but ill-fitted for the great work that was before them. Almost from the beginning it was clear that this body opposed the retaining of the monarchy, even the limited monarchy that the constitution had set up. The Assembly divided into political parties, and the two most powerful, the Girondist and the Jacobin parties, both were in favor of abolishing the monarchy and setting up a republic.

The revolution thus far accomplished was mild in comparison with the violent and bloody one that was to follow. As to leadership, Mirabeau was dead, Siéyès was pushed aside and shelved. Lafayette found himself out of harmony with the new spirit and his influence gone. The most conspicuous leaders of the second Revolution were Robespierre, Marat, and Danton (dän-tôɴ'), all of whom were destined to meet a violent death within the coming three years.

Robespierre was a "dapper little lawyer" who won great popularity and for a time was the idol of the nation. Marat had been a physician. He became a violent revolutionist, published a newspaper, and inflamed the lower classes to madness by his vicious editorials.

Danton, next to Mirabeau, was the greatest figure of the Revolution. Powerful, eloquent, and gifted with the qualities of leadership, Danton was a constructive statesman of high order and deserved to be called the Mirabeau of the second phase of the Revolution.

399. War with Austria and Prussia. — The runaway nobles along the Rhine, led by the two brothers of the king, did all in their power to engage foreign armies against France. Exasperated at this and at the menacing attitude of Austria, the French Assembly declared war against that country on April 20, 1792. An alliance between Austria and Prussia brought the latter country into the war also.

King Louis signed the declaration of war because he knew that a refusal would have brought a revolt such as had never before been known. But one can imagine how humiliating it must have been, for at this time he was secretly encouraging the Austrians to come and rescue him from the prison of his own capital.

As the summer approached an Austro-Prussian army crossed the French frontier and marched toward Paris. Leading the invasion was the Duke of Brunswick, an old commander of Frederick the Great. In July the duke issued a proclamation to the people of France declaring that he came to put an end to the anarchy and to restore the king to his rightful powers, — that he would punish with death all taken with arms in their hands, and if King Louis were injured, the city of Paris would be given over to destruction.

400. Fall of the Monarchy. — Instead of being cowed by this insolent proclamation, the people of Paris broke into furious and uncontrollable passion. Stung to madness by their belief that the king was in league with the invading foe, the people demanded that he be dethroned. From Marseilles (mar-sālz′) on the Mediterranean Sea came 500 men, dragging their cannon through the July dust for hundreds of miles. They entered Paris singing a new revolutionary hymn, that most stirring of national songs, the *Marseillaise* (mar-se-lāz′), and demanded the dethronement of the king. On August 10, 1792, came the crisis, a memorable day in the French Revolution. The radicals, having seized the city government, determined to stir up an insurrection.

All through the night preceding, the bells of Paris, rung by Jacobin hands, sent out their peals. From the slums and from every section of the city multitudes came, arming themselves with pikes and muskets. In the early morning the mobs gathered about the palace of the Tuileries, the dwelling place of the royal family since their removal from Versailles. King Louis might have saved his throne and made a great name for himself that day. He had 1500 Swiss guards and many other defenders, thoroughly trained, faithful to his orders and well posted, about the palace. But Louis was utterly wanting in the powers of leadership. Having taken refuge with the Legislative Assembly in a near-by hall, he wrote an order that his defenders should not fire on the besieging crowds. It was a stupid and tragic blunder. At the first onset the Swiss drove back the insurgents with a deadly volley. The mob came again, but the Swiss had now received the order not to fire. The infuriated multitude, knowing nothing of the king's order, struck down the noble Swiss in their tracks or hunted them to death as they were trying to escape. The Swiss were massacred almost to the last man.

All day the king sat in the Assembly chamber. He heard the roar of the cannon and the shrieks of his dying guards without. He heard also the debate on the motion that he be suspended from his great office as king of France, and witnessed its final passage by a unanimous vote. The mob had overawed the Assembly. The Duke of Brunswick had received his answer.

401. **Dumouriez Checks the Invasion.** — Never in history had a people risen more grandly than the French now rose to beat back the invaders of their country. At their head was the superb figure of Danton. Day and night he labored to rouse the people and equip the armies. To the Assembly he shouted with the dashing splendor of Mirabeau, " Our country is in danger," and " to dare and dare and dare again, alone will save it."

Dumouriez (dü-mo͞o-ryā′) was the commanding general. With a badly equipped, half-trained army he marched against the invaders. The French were successful. They turned back the invaders and took several German towns on the Rhine. Later Dumouriez occupied the southern Netherlands (now Belgium), then a possession of Austria. The rejoicing in France was great, not only for the delivery of the country, but also because of the opportunity to carry the principles of the Revolution to foreign lands.

402. The September Massacres. — Meantime an atrocious crime had been committed in Paris. In the fear that there would be a royalist uprising in Paris after the strong men had gone to the war, great numbers of royalists and priests had been thrown into prison on suspicion. To terrify the royalist party and to secure more room in the crowded prisons the leaders of the city government of Paris, called the Commune, decided on a cold-blooded massacre (September, 1792). With the merest sham of a trial, hundreds of men and women were slain by assassins at the prison doors. It is a dark page in the story of the Revolution — the shocking tale of these September massacres. But they had the intended effect. The royalist party was completely subdued.

II. THE NATIONAL CONVENTION; THE REIGN OF TERROR

403. Birth of the Republic and Death of the King. — When the king was suspended in August, 1792, the constitution under which he reigned fell with him. The Legislative Assembly thereupon provided that a new body be elected to draft a new constitution and to govern the country at the same time. This body was called the National Convention.

The Convention, composed of about eight hundred men, was entirely hostile to the monarchy, and its first act was to depose the suspended king and proclaim France a republic. This first French Republic dates from September 22, 1792, which was reckoned as the first day of the Year One.[1]

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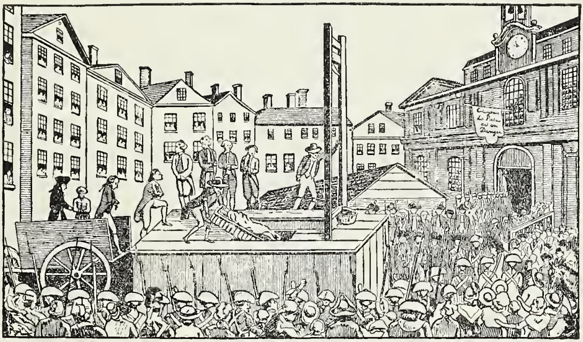
[1] These ardent enthusiasts were so eager to obliterate the past that they began a new reckoning of time. They also divided the year into twelve months of 30

How to dispose of the king was one of the hard problems that came before the Convention. He and his family had been kept close prisoners since August 10. To retain him indefinitely in prison would not be feasible, and it might give rise to endless intrigues of his friends. To banish him from the country would be to invite such troubles as the half century of annoyances to which England had been subjected by the Stuart pretenders (sec. 368). The ardent republicans believed that Louis should be put to death for treason, as it was known that he had secretly encouraged the enemies of France to invade the country.


Citoyens La Patrie est en Danger

Guillotine in the Square before the Hotel de Ville

Illustration from a contemporary newspaper.

The fallen monarch was therefore tried by the Convention on a charge of treason. He was pronounced guilty and by a small majority was condemned to death. On January 21, 1793, Louis was put to death by means of the guillotine (gĭl′o-tēn), a newly invented machine for cutting off heads. He died bravely. In the following October, the widowed queen, Marie Antoinette, condemned for the same offense by a Revolutionary Tribunal,

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days each, the remaining five days being made holidays; they divided each month into three weeks of ten days each, every tenth day being a rest day.

mounted the scaffold and with equal fortitude suffered the fate of her husband.[1]

404. The First Coalition.— Monarchist Europe was stirred to wrath by the beheading of Louis XVI. To punish the regicides and to prevent the further spread of republicanism, a great coalition of the European powers was formed against France. Even Great Britain joined the enemies of the new-born republic. The allied rulers actually contemplated the partitioning of France and dividing up large sections of it among themselves.

Now again French patriotism rose to heroic heights. As vigorous and immediate action was required, a Committee of Public Safety was created by the Convention and given almost unlimited powers. Lafayette had fled to Austria, and Dumouriez, disapproving the execution of the king, had deserted to the enemy. New generals were soon found and within a few months they had under arms at least three quarters of a million men. The organizer of this force was Lazare Carnot (lȧ-zär′ kär-nō̇′), one of the strong men of the time. The Allies began to move upon France, but not with the expected vigor. Some of them at this moment were more interested in the second partition of Poland (sec. 366). The French armies were generally successful, and by the end of the year 1793 all danger from the First Coalition had passed.

405. The Mountain Crushes the Girondists. — The Convention divided into hostile parties. One of these, the Girondist party, had done much toward overthrowing the monarchy and setting up the republic. But the leading Girondists, though splendid orators, were too theoretical and philosophic at a moment of public danger when action was necessary. They enjoyed debate rather than action.

The Mountain was a more radical and violent party, so called because its members — mostly Jacobins — occupied the upper tiers of seats in the Convention hall. At first the Mountain was in a hopeless minority in the Convention. But at its back were the rabble and all the violent elements of Paris, also the Paris commune or city governing body. Why not invoke the Paris mob against their enemies? On various occasions in the overthrow of the monarchy the mob had played a leading part. Why should it not be equally potent in overthrowing the Girondists? So thought the Jacobins, and on this idea they acted. The mob of Paris was again stirred to fury. On June 2, 1793, all the fanatical elements of the great city surrounded the Convention hall and frantically demanded that the Girondists be expelled from the Convention. Again the mob was successful and about thirty of the leading Girondists were placed under arrest; many of them later were put to death.

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[1] The royal pair left two children, a boy of seven, named Louis, the Dauphin or heir to the throne, who died because of the cruel treatment of his jailers, and a girl named Marie Thérèse Charlotte, older, who was released a few years later and lived to old age. She was known as Madame Royale.

This violent method of the radicals in triumphing over the more moderate party awakened a fierce resentment in the various parts of France. In La Vendée (lȧ-väɴ-dā′), Bordeaux (bôr-dō′), Ly′ons, and Toulon (tōō-lôɴ′) the people rose in revolt, but were put down with a ruthless hand. At Toulon the city was subdued by the skill of a young artillery officer, hitherto unknown, but destined to become the most conspicuous man in French history in a thousand years — Napo′leon Bo′naparte.

406. The Terror at its Height. — The most revolting feature of the French Revolution was the Terror, which lasted about ten months — from September, 1793, to July of the next year.[1]

It seemed that the French nation had gone mad. The Jacobins composing the Mountain became uncontrollably and fanatically radical. No one can reason with a fanatic. The Jacobins passed beyond the reasoning point. They imagined plots against the Revolution on all sides. They passed the Law of the Suspects by which any one could be imprisoned on mere suspicion. Thus thousands of people were sent to prison for no crime, except that they were supposed to sympathize with the royalists.

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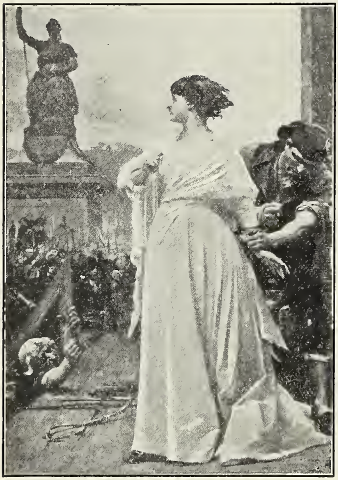
[1] This is often called the Long Terror, the Short Terror being the September massacres of the preceding year (sec. 402).

When the prisons became crowded, they were emptied by the Revolutionary Tribunal, a kind of court created to try the prisoners. But so many were the victims brought before this tribunal that it could give them no real trial. They had no chance of self-defense. Hundreds were condemned to death by the mere reading of their names before the tribunal.



Madame Roland on her Way to Execution

From a painting by Royer.

In the heart of the city was the Square of the Revolution, and there stood the ghastly guillotine. To this bloody ground the hapless victims, men and women of high and low degree, were brought in crowds day after day, and in the midst of a hooting, staring crowd of idlers, their heads were rolled into the basket. Among the victims was Madame Roland (rō-läɴ′), a woman of fine mind and of noble qualities. She was an ardent republican, but she had displeased the Jacobins and her fate was sealed. While on her way to the place of execution, she passed a statue of liberty and looking at it exclaimed, "Oh, Liberty, what crimes are committed in thy name!"[1]

407. **Marat and Charlotte Corday.** — One of the wildest of the fanatics was Dr. Marat, formerly a physician, now an inciter of mob violence by means of a newspaper. He seemed to prefer mob rule to law and order. Nothing was too violent for this sometime doctor, and no amount of bloodshed seemed to glut his

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[1] Dickens's *Tale of Two Cities* will be found very interesting in this connection.

savage vengeance. It was chiefly due to him that the patriotic Girondists were hounded to their death.

In the province of Normandy there was a beautiful and noble-minded girl named Charlotte Corday (kŏr-dĕ′). Deeply grieved at the horrors of the guillotine in Paris, and believing that Marat was the soul of the Terror and the chief cause of the bloodshed, she reached a heroic resolution — she would go to Paris and save her country by killing Marat. With a concealed dagger she sought and obtained entrance into his house and stabbed him to death. A few days later the girl-assassin paid the penalty of her crime at the guillotine.

The death of Marat did not stop the Terror nor aid the remaining Girondists; but if ever there was an assassin whom the world has forgiven, it was Charlotte Corday.

408. Death of Danton. — The two great leaders in France at this period were Danton and Robespierre. Both were sincere men, upright and intensely anxious to regenerate France and make it the model of the world. Both belonged to the party composing the Mountain, and in common they believed that the free use of the guillotine was necessary to rid the country of a class that would plot against the republic if they could. Danton was the more powerful and the more admirable of the two. As minister of justice he proved himself one of the leading statesmen in French history.

Robespierre was a smaller man in mind and body. He became an idol of the people, but was never popular in the Convention. On two occasions while speaking before the Convention he was unnerved by the hooting of his enemies, when Danton came to his rescue. " Go on," rose the deep, rich voice of the orator, "Go on, Robespierre, there are many good citizens here to listen."

Soon came a change. Danton grew weary of bloodshed. Believing that the Revolution needed to be sustained no longer by the guillotine, he gave his voice for moderation. This did not please the radicals, who still thirsted for blood. Many of them were enemies of Danton and they made his change of heart a pretext to attack him. On various flimsy charges this titanic leader who had saved France (sec. 401) was arrested, was given a farcical trial and condemned to death, and with him perished the witty, brilliant Camille Desmoulins, who had also joined the moderates.

409. Death of Robespierrre; End of the Terror. — Robespierre was not the leader in the destruction of his great friend, Danton, but he could have prevented it and did not. He approved it and aided in bringing it about. Why Robespierre took this position is scarcely known. Perhaps he was jealous of the great name Danton had made and wished to be rid of his only formidable rival; perhaps Robespierre saw that the Terror would surely continue for a time and wished to be on the popular side.

As Danton was passing the home of Robespierre while being carted to the guillotine, he shouted in a powerful voice, "You will soon follow us!"

Robespierre was now the leading man in France. He had sent Danton to his death and also a gang of atheists who had made a bitter fight on the Catholic churches of Paris. He led the Convention to affirm that the French people recognized a Supreme Being, in whose honor he held a solemn festival, himself acting as the high priest. Meantime the Terror went on at a more rapid pace; the victims of the guillotine in six weeks, June and July, 1794, numbered 1356.

Robespierre, contrary to popular belief, was not the chief instigator of this slaughter. The fact that it ceased with his death makes it difficult to undo this popular error. There is ample evidence that he wanted it to be stopped, but could not control the men who desired it to go on, and it is certain that Robespierre was survived by many men far more blood-guilty than himself. In July, 1794, he was overwhelmed by his enemies and sent to his death. Surely the Revolution, like Saturn, was devouring its own children.

The Terror ceased, not because of the fall of Robespierre, but because the public mind was revolting against it and would tolerate it no longer. The vilest of the men who had carried it on now saw the turn of the tide and promptly cast all the odium on the head of the dead Robespierre. The nation returned to a state of sanity and order.

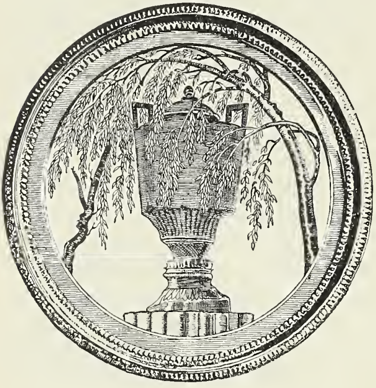
410. Constitution of the Year III. — The Convention busied itself with many things. One thing of permanent value that it did was to adopt the metric system of weights and measures, which has gone into use in many parts of the world. The great work of the Convention was to frame a new constitution. This was finished in the fall of 1795, the third year of the republic, and was called the Constitution of the Year III. By this a new government was created, known as the Directory because the executive power was placed in the hands of five Directors. Under the first constitution the Legislative Assembly or parliament consisted of one house; under this second constitution there were two houses, the lower house being called the Council of Five Hundred and the upper one the Council of the Ancients.

The terror of the guillotine having ceased, the enemies of the Convention again raised their heads. The royalists stirred up an attack on October 5, 1795, but it was repulsed with the slaughter of hundreds. The defense of the Convention was in the hands of young Bonaparte, whom we have seen at Toulon (sec. 405). A few weeks later the life of the Convention came to an end (October 26) and the government of the Directory came into being.

411. Passing of the High Tide. — With the adjournment of the Convention in the autumn of 1795, the high tide of the Revolution had passed. A backward glance will show much disorder and bloodshed. It will reveal to us again the bitter hatred between the masses and the classes, the murderous rising of the lawless mob, the execution of a king and queen whose personal characters deserved respect. We note also a wave of irreverent atheism sweep over the land, the destruction of old landmarks, churches and castles, and the slaying of many innocent men and women. Finally we see the leaders, in their frenzied zeal for reform, turning upon and slaying one another.

Many of the reforming zealots were men of high personal character, and though they lost their heads and ordered wholesale executions, they abhorred the practice of the Middle Ages of torturing their victims and burning them at the stake.

During the six years since the meeting of the States-General, France had been regenerated through her baptism of blood. The common people had been awakened to a sense of their rights and responsibilities; thousands of square miles of hunting lands had been changed into farms and gardens, and a universal system of education, the first ever known in France, had been established.



Memorial to the King and Queen

Drawing of a funeral urn with the profile of Louis XVI in the base at the left, Marie Antoinette at the right, the Dauphin in the willow tree at the right margin, and his sister Madame Royale at the left of the king's head. Made for sympathetic royalists by a contemporary artist.

412. **Results of the Revolution.** — Deeply as we deplore the excesses of the French Revolution, the wild disorder and the Reign of Terror, we must not overlook the fact that it was the beginning of momentous changes of the most far-reaching importance. The principle of the Revolution, democracy, has spread in nearly all countries. Nothing in modern history is of more importance than the growth of democracy in Europe. In 1789 England had already worked out partial self-government, but on the Continent, except in the two little countries, Holland and Switzerland, the people had no rights whatever against the will of their sovereigns, not even the right to life and property. They had no share in

their government, no part in making the laws they were obliged to obey.

To-day, however, through the emancipation of the masses of the people, the common man has come into his own. His government now offers him not wealth or talent or station, but opportunity, a chance to make the best of himself. This had been denied him under the old régime. Who can tell how many Newtons and Franklins and Edisons lived and died unknown during the Middle Ages, never having learned to read? No wonder the progress was slow. The marvelous advance of the past hundred years is due largely to the fact that the masses of the people have been given a chance — and the ball was set rolling by the French Revolution.

The whole theory of the Revolution may be expressed in this brief sentence, — One man is as good as another, — which means that all should enjoy the same rights and opportunities.

Questions and Topics. — I. How did the Legislative Assembly differ from the National Assembly? Describe the fall of the monarchy; the trial and execution of the king.

II. Do you think the king deserved the fate he met? Why? Describe the clash of political parties. What method was employed by the Jacobins to crush the Girondists? Is it a safe method? Is it ever employed in this country? What is the metric system? Give a summing up of the results of the Revolution. How would you estimate Danton and Robespierre? The deed of Charlotte Corday? What was the most popular French national song?

Events and Dates. — Establishing of the First Republic in France, 1792. Execution of King Louis XVI, 1793. The Reign of Terror, 1793–1794.

For Further Reading. — Same as under the preceding chapter. Belloc, *Danton,* also *Robespierre* by the same author.

CHAPTER XXXIV

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

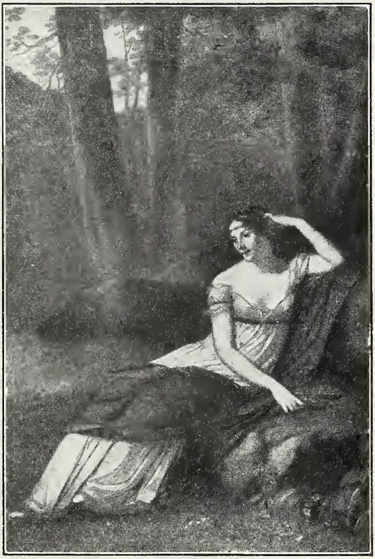
I. NAPOLEON BECOMES MASTER OF FRANCE

413. Beginning of Napoleon's Career. — No one can tell what might have been the story of France in the next two decades but for the unexpected appearance of this most remarkable character in the history of modern times.

Born in 1769 on the island of Corsica, of Italian descent, the second son in a family of eight children, Napoleon Bonaparte spent several years of his boyhood in military schools in France. Thrown in the classroom among nobles who twitted him for his poverty, he came to feel bitter against them and their country. As a young man he returned to his native island and planned a revolt against the government of France, to which the island belonged. But he displeased the local authorities and was banished from Corsica. Henceforth his destiny was one with that of France. We have noticed how he attracted public attention first at Toulon and again at Paris.

414. The Italian Campaign. — The great career of Napoleon began when the French Directory sent him on his famous Italian campaign, one of the most brilliant of his life. It was in the spring of 1796. Peace had been made with Prussia and Spain, but Great Britain and Austria were still at war with France. The want of a French fleet made it difficult to attack England, and it was determined to attack Austria from three sides. Two splendid armies under well-tried generals were sent to attack the north. A third and much smaller army was given to General Bonaparte to make an attack from the south by way of Italy. The two northern armies were defeated and accomplished little; the third was brilliantly successful.

Europe was astonished at the series of lightning-like strokes by which the young Corsican commander won his victories. Leaving Paris late in March, he crossed the Alps with incredible swiftness. He soon occupied the Po Valley, captured Milan and not only forced that city and others to pay heavy ransoms but also despoiled the churches and galleries of many fine works of art, which were sent to France. This spirit of plunder was unknown in the earlier days of the Revolution.



JOSEPHINE, WIFE OF NAPOLEON

From a painting by Prudhon. At the time of his marriage, Napoleon was about to start on his Italian campaign. Josephine was a general favorite, and her husband once acknowledged her helpful tact with the remark, "I win battles, but Josephine wins hearts." In later years, however, after he became emperor, he divorced Josephine and married an Austrian princess.

Austria sent army after army against Napoleon during the following months, but all in turn were defeated and many thousands of prisoners were taken. By the following spring the intrepid commander was ready to march upon Vienna, when the Austrian monarch sued for peace. By the treaty of Cam'po For'mio (1797), Austria ceded to France the Austrian Netherlands (now Belgium), but received most of the republic of Venice, which Napoleon had seized and despoiled. All the rest of northern Italy was left at the disposal of France.

Napoleon returning to Paris was hailed as the hero of the nation. Not in a hundred years had France held so commanding a place in Europe, and it was the brilliant young Corsican commander who had given her such eminence. Conscious of his own powers, Napoleon already had it in mind to seize the government of France, but he saw that the time was not yet ripe.

415. **The Egyptian Adventure.** — The remaining enemy of France was England. To strike this enemy on his home soil was impossible. Napoleon suggested to the Directory an expedition to Egypt, led by himself, the purpose being to threaten the commerce of Great Britain in the Mediterranean and perhaps even to cut that country off from her great possessions in India. The Directory was jealous of his popularity and gladly consented to the proposal, which would take him out of the country.

With an army of 40,000 men, Napoleon embarked at Toulon in May, 1798. By a narrow margin he eluded the battle fleet of Admiral Nelson, the great English naval commander, and landed at Alexandria. A month later his fleet was destroyed by Nelson in the famous battle of the Nile.

Napoleon was now completely cut off from Europe, and his expedition became useless, although he won the battle of the Pyramids[1] and gained control of Egypt.[2] After making a fruitless excursion into Syria, and after hearing how matters stood in France, he determined to abandon his army in Egypt and return to Paris. Again eluding Nelson, he landed on the coast of France with a few followers in October, 1799.

Wild and enthusiastic was the rejoicing of the French people at this second return of their conquering hero. The fact that he had really accomplished little in his Egyptian campaign was lost sight of. Few of the people knew at this moment of the deep designs of this designing man.

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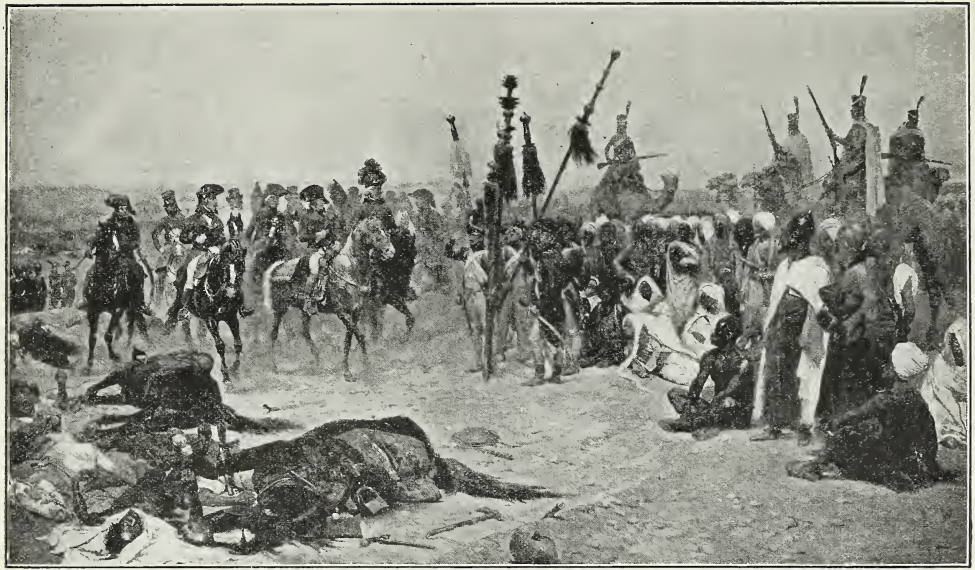
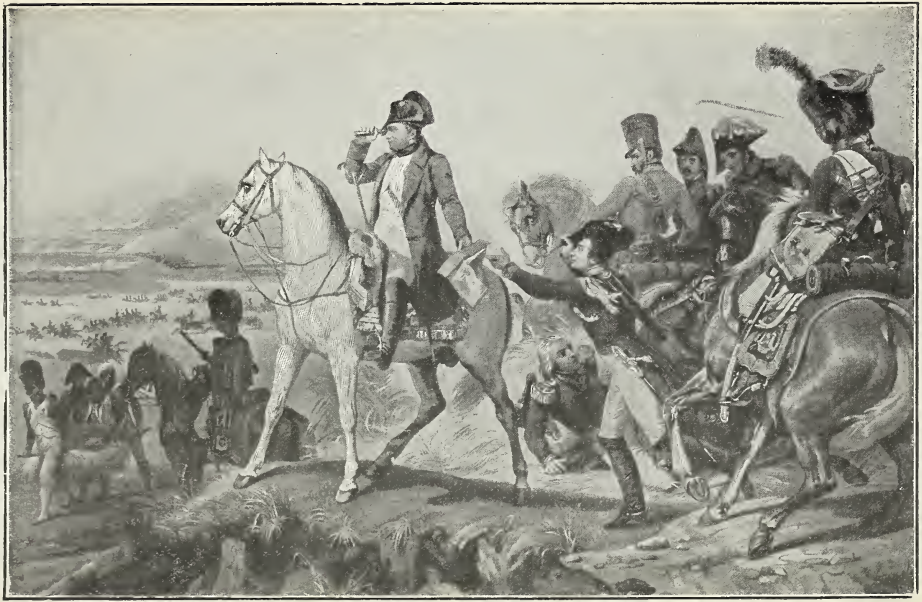
[1] After the battle of the Pyramids Napoleon, surrounded by his staff, received the captured standards of the defeated Mamelukes, the influential standing army of Egypt. The picture on the opposite page is from a painting by Detaille.

[2] It was at this time that the French soldiers discovered the famous Rosetta stone (sec. 21).



Napoleon in Egypt, 1798



Napoleon at the Battle of Wagram, 1809 (page 485)

416. Napoleon Seizes the French Government. — Napoleon understood the French people better than they understood themselves. He saw that the time had come. He knew that the Directory, composed of five men, was corrupt and inefficient, that it lacked the confidence of the people, and that the country was broken into hostile parties. He knew that the people were weary unto death of disorder and bloodshed and revolution, and he believed that they were ready to welcome a strong hand at the helm of the ship of state. Moreover, the treasury was empty; a second great coalition of the nations against France had been formed; and already several French armies had been defeated. Even northern Italy, which he had won so brilliantly two years before, had been lost to the republic. Weary and disgusted with all these things, the French people, though they did not know it, were waiting and longing for a strong man, — and here he was.

On the 9th of November, 1799, Napoleon Bonaparte seized the government of the French nation. The Directory was quickly forced to resign, but the Council of Five Hundred resisted fiercely, until Napoleon, imitating Cromwell with the Long Parliament, took possession of their hall with a band of soldiers. The members escaped speedily through doors and windows, and the Corsican commander, at the age of thirty years, was absolute master of France.

417. A View of the New Master. — The transcendent genius of Napoleon Bonaparte is acknowledged by all. In personal appearance he was not striking or impressive; he was low of stature, thin and slight of body in early manhood. Yet there was something that compelled attention in his keen searching eye, his animated gestures, his quick, irregular speech. Such was the man who was to set up and pull down empires, to make and unmake kings and kingdoms, and to make his will the law for half of Europe.

As a commander of armies he had hardly an equal in history. Seldom are more than three other warriors — Alexander, Hannibal, and Caesar — mentioned in the same class with him. The two supreme qualities necessary for a successful commander he possessed in a high degree — first, strategic ability, the power of faultless planning of campaigns and battles; and second, the power of electrifying an army with his own spirit.

As a statesman also Napoleon ranks among the greatest in history.

The one vital point to be deplored in the make-up of this wonderful man is the fact that he was not guided by any high moral principles. Right and wrong were meaningless terms to him, and there is every reason to believe that the highest motive of his life was to gratify his insatiable selfish ambition for power and glory.

II. The Consulate; Napoleon in Peace

418. The Government under Napoleon. — The Constitution of the Year III fell to pieces with the seizure of the government by Napoleon in the fall of 1799. The new constitution adopted was known as the Constitution of the Year VIII. It abolished the Directory of five men and put in its place a Consulate of three men. The "first consul" was Napoleon Bonaparte. One of the other two (for a short time) was Siéyès, whom we met in the early days of the Revolution (sec. 390). Siéyès had helped to overthrow the old government. He had expected to have large powers in the new; but after the first meeting of the three consuls he said to some friends, "Gentlemen, we have a master. The republic is no more; it died to-day."

From this time on for fourteen years the will of Napoleon dominated the country as completely as any absolute monarch ever governed a nation. The new constitution was molded by his will so as to leave all ultimate power in his hands. The other two consuls, the legislative bodies, and every official in the nation were as puppets in the hands of the young Corsican prodigy. And from the start he proved himself as truly a master in administration as he had done on the battlefield.

He soon reëstablished order throughout the country; he recalled the noble emigrants and declared them eligible to office; he cleared the country of bandits, reopened the churches, and placed the finances on a firm basis. The departments he governed by officers called prefects and subprefects, who took the place of the intendants of the days of the kings.

419. Second Italian Campaign; Lunéville and Amiens. — On Christmas Day, 1799, Napoleon offered peace to Great Britain and Austria. Both refused. Great Britain, led by William Pitt the younger, one of the greatest of British premiers, suggested that France prove her good faith by recalling the Bourbons to the throne, which made the French furious.

A few months later Napoleon astonished the Austrians by swooping down from the Alps into northern Italy. His army crossed the Alps by way of the Great St. Bernard Pass, rivaling the feat of Hannibal. The cannon were dragged through the snow-covered mountains in hollowed-out trunks of trees.

There was one great conflict, the battle of Maren′go (June 14, 1800), in which at a single stroke Napoleon won back all of northern Italy. Meantime he had sent General Moreau (mo-rō′) to strike Austria on the north. In December Moreau defeated the enemy at the battle of Hohenlinden (hō-en-lĭn′den); and with these two French victories Austria was humbled and sued for peace. The treaty of Lunéville (lü-nā-vēl′) followed (1801) and most of the provisions of Campo Formio were repeated. The Rhine River was made the eastern boundary of France.

The next year, March 25, 1802, Napoleon made peace with Great Britain in the treaty of Amiens (ȧ-myăɴ′), and for the first time since he came into power France was at peace with all the world.

420. Progress in Peace. — Great in war as Napoleon was, he was almost equally great in peace. Indeed, it may be said that while his military victories left no permanent effects, much of his constructive work in time of peace endures to this day.

The tax rate was speedily fixed and the money of the country made stable after being for years of uncertain and varying value. A sinking fund for the paying of the public debt was established, and the Bank of France was founded. Great activity in road and bridge building and in improving the docks became the order of the day.

Two of the most memorable of Napoleon's achievements were his treaty with the Catholic Church and his new code of laws.

The forces of the Revolution had persecuted the church, especially the priests who had refused to take the oath prescribed for them. Napoleon was personally devoid of religious principles, but he saw clearly that by making some concessions he could gain the support of the church. He thereupon made a treaty with the pope in 1801, known as the Concor′dat.[1] By this arrangement the rites of the Catholic Church might be freely observed. But the church none the less remained largely under the control of the government, which was to nominate the bishops, who in turn appointed the priests.

The law code was arranged by experts appointed by Napoleon. The laws had been in a chaotic condition. They were now carefully collected and published in 1804. This collection was called the *Code Napoléon.* It is still in use in France and in various other countries.

One of the notable incidents of this period was the sale of Louisiana to the United States. Napoleon had recently received Louisiana from Spain, but he saw that Great Britain would be able to prevent him from building up a great colony across the Atlantic, and he therefore sold it rather than run the risk of losing it in war.

III. The Empire and the Napoleonic Wars

421. Napoleon Becomes Emperor. — The personal ambition of this "man of destiny" was unbounded. No monarch of the ancient Orient was fonder of homage and adulation. Since the seizure of the government in 1799 he had been absolute master in France. In 1802 he was made first consul for life with the power to choose his own successor. But his ambition was not yet satisfied. Why not have the title as well as the power of a monarch? The pliant Senate, heedful of its master's wishes, therefore formally requested him to become hereditary monarch with the title of emperor. No urging was needed. On December 2, 1804, in the great cathedral of Notre Dame (nō-tr' dȧm') in Paris, General Bonaparte was crowned as Napoleon I, Emperor of the French. The occasion was one of great pomp and ceremony. The crowd was innumerable; the musicians alone numbered five hundred. The pope had come all the way from Rome expecting to place the crown on his head, but Napoleon took it and placed it on his own head. He wished the world to know that he was not indebted to the church, but to his own genius, for his success and his lofty eminence.

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[1] The Concordat was abrogated in 1905 after being in force for 104 years.

Napoleon as emperor preserved for France one great principle of the Revolution — equality before the law — but at heart he was no democrat. He created a new nobility and introduced all the pomp of the old French kings. He employed both republicans and royalists in his service, he bridled and guided the left-over forces of the Revolution, and he made the church subservient to his imperial will. Liberty of the press and freedom of speech were sternly suppressed by Napoleon. He terrorized and conciliated as suited his purpose. But withal, he governed France with a master hand; his energy was prodigious and tireless. He established the Bank of France and the Legion of Honor; he released the imprisoned priests and put a stop to forced loans; he constructed roads and bridges and docks. The vast majority of the people were contented with the change.

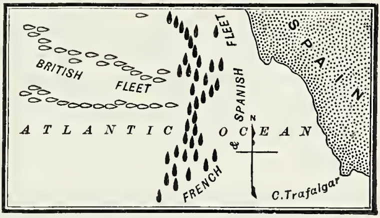
422. Napoleon's Ambition. — This mighty man was at the parting of the ways. What a name he could have left to the world had he now been content to spend the remainder of his life building up France and cultivating the friendship of her neighbors! Already his military renown filled the world; he needed no more glory of conquest. Already his country held a commanding position. On the east, on the north, and on the south her boundaries had been greatly enlarged, and it was due chiefly to himself. He enjoyed the unbounded confidence of his people. Could he only settle down to a life of peace and constructive statesmanship! But he could not.

To govern a nation in the ordinary way, even to be absolute monarch of a great world power, was to live a life too tame for Napoleon's ambitious and restless soul. A soldier he was above all things, nor was he troubled with remorse on account of wholesale shedding of human blood. Moreover, he was obsessed with the idea that Europe should be a confederated state with a single imperial head.

The peace with Great Britain continued but a year, when the treaty of Amiens was set aside. England induced Russia and Austria to join her and thus the Third Coalition was formed against France. Napoleon made ready to invade the British Isles, but the frowning cannon of Nelson's men-of-war guarding the Channel made the undertaking too perilous, and suddenly he wheeled about and plunged into the heart of Europe.

423. Trafalgar and Austerlitz. — Austria was Napoleon's goal, and the campaign was won in a single decisive battle — the great battle of Aus′terlitz. Here on Dec. 2, 1805, a year from the day of his coronation at Notre Dame, Napoleon crushed the combined Austrian and Russian armies. In the treaty of Pressburg which followed, Austria gave up much of her territory, including Venice, acknowledged the independence of Baden (bä′den), and agreed that the rulers of Bavaria (ba-vā′rĭ-a) and Württemberg (vür′tem-bĕrᴋ) be raised to the rank of kings. These and several other German states were then formed into the Confederation of the Rhine, with Napoleon as "Protector." The next year, 1806, witnessed the extinguishing of the old German Empire, or Holy Roman Empire (secs. 209, 248, 249), after an existence of a thousand years.

Meantime one of the greatest sea fights in history had taken place. The British admiral, Nelson, on October 21, 1805, engaged and almost annihilated the French and Spanish fleets at Trafalgar′ off the coast of Spain. "England expects every man to do his duty," were Nelson's memorable words as the battle opened. Like Gustavus Adolphus at Lützen, Nelson lost his life, but his victory was complete. The supremacy of England on the sea was assured, and Napoleon's last hope of invading the island kingdom was gone.



Battle of Trafalgar

424. **Humiliation of Prussia; the Peace of Tilsit.** For ten years Prussia had been at peace with France. Her king had refused to join the other nations against Napoleon. But that conqueror, in his thirst for more conquest after humbling Austria and Russia at Austerlitz, moved into Prussia, goaded her into war, and inflicted a fearful defeat on her at the battle of Jena (yā′nä), October 14, 1806, and the same month entered Berlin′ in triumph. The following June he defeated the Russians at Friedland (frēd′länt), and all Central Europe lay at his feet. Then came the treaty of Tilsit (tĭl′zĭt).

The tsar of Russia, Alexander I, met the French emperor on a raft in the Niemen (nē′men) River, and here one of the great treaties of the time was arranged, — the treaty of Tilsit, July, 1807. The romantic young tsar was charmed by the fascinating emperor and was ready to listen to his extraordinary proposals. Napoleon spread before his eyes the division of the world into two mighty empires, with the tsar and himself their respective heads. Alexander was to expand into Asia and was to seize portions of Turkey and of Sweden, while the French Empire was to be supreme over central and western Europe.

This famous treaty provided for the dismemberment of Prussia with the loss of more than half its territory. On the west was created the kingdom of Westphalia, with Jerome Bonaparte, a brother of the French emperor, as its king; on the east, the duchy of Warsaw, — only a part of the old Poland, now taken from Prussia (and later from Austria), — with the king of Saxony, Napoleon's ally, as its ruler. Thus the Poles, who had fought faithfully in the Napoleonic battles, were cruelly denied the greatest longing in their souls — the restoration of their land and self-government. Moreover, the treaty of Tilsit provided for the humbling of England by means of a continental blockade to be enforced jointly by the two emperors.

425. Napoleon at the Height of his Power. — The treaty of Tilsit marks the high tide in Napoleon's career. Beginning life on a small, dependent island of the Mediterranean, he had risen, through his own matchless genius and energy, to a height that few men in history had ever attained. He was emperor of the French and king of Italy with absolute power; he was ruler of Switzerland with the title of Mediator.

In addition, he had surrounded the French Empire with vassal states in which he had created thrones for the various members of his family. His three brothers each sat upon a throne. Louis Bonaparte was king of Holland, Joseph was king of Naples, later of Spain, and Jerome was king of Westphalia, a state created for his benefit. Napoleon's brother-in-law, Murat (mü-ra′), followed Joseph as king of Naples. No Bourbon or Hapsburg or Hohenzollern family had ever wielded such power as this family so recently obscure and unknown. In 1810 Sweden, whose king was without an heir, chose one of Napoleon's marshals, Bernadotte (bûr-na-dŏt′), as crown prince and heir to the throne.

In his military career Napoleon had proved himself a matchless leader. Three times he had humbled the proud House of Hapsburg to the dust, and a fourth was to be added in the future. Three times he had defeated the Russian armies, and he had torn to pieces the great kingdom that the Hohenzollerns had been building for four centuries. But the highwater mark had been reached and the ebb was soon to begin.

IV. DECLINE AND FALL OF THE EMPIRE OF NAPOLEON

426. The Continental System. — Napoleon having made an ally of Russia at Tilsit and having subdued nearly all the rest of Europe, had remaining the one unconquered enemy, — Great Britain. The victory of Nelson at Trafalgar made an invasion of that country impossible. Napoleon therefore as a last resort determined to starve out the island kingdom by enforcing his blockade known as the Continental System. It was the arch-enemy England that had stirred up the Continent against him and had furnished large sums of money to his enemies. Therefore, he determined to crush England at all hazards.

In November, 1806, Napoleon issued his Berlin Decree, declaring a blockade of the British Isles, and forbidding British trade with France and other parts of the Continent. French ports were left open to neutral trade; but in retaliation for the Berlin Decree the British ministry issued an order in Council (November, 1807) forbidding any neutral vessel to trade at a French port without first paying a duty at a British port.[1] This again led Napoleon, then in Italy, to issue his Milan Decree (December, 1807). By this he declared any neutral ship complying with the British requirement a lawful prize and subject to seizure and confiscation. Thus like fighting dogs the two nations snapped and snarled at each other.

In the end the Continental System greatly impaired the prestige of Napoleon in central Europe. Hitherto the masses of the people had not been greatly displeased with the invasions of Napoleon. He had destroyed the remaining vestiges of feudalism and had dethroned many of their petty tyrannical rulers. He had brought the people some of the blessings of the French Revolution. But the Continental System brought them nothing but discomfort and loss. Thousands of business men were ruined. Their ships lay rotting in the harbors. Sugar, cotton, and many other things were unobtainable. The people rightly believed that they suffered all this merely to gratify the boundless ambition of one man. Their national spirit was awakened and soon they were ready to rise and throw off the yoke of their oppressor. But from an unexpected quarter, the kingdom of Spain, came the first serious blow to the power of the great emperor.

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[1] These measures were especially severe on American shipping and became in part the cause of the War of 1812 with Great Britain a few years later.

427. Uprising in Spain. — The weak and effete monarchy of Spain had been subservient to Napoleon for years. With nothing to gain it had furnished men for his armies and money for his treasury; it had sold him Louisiana for a price that was never paid; it had declared war on Great Britain only to please him, and had sent its fleet to be destroyed at Trafalgar.

After all this abject servitude the French emperor, detecting a sign of discontent in Spain, determined on one of the most high-handed political crimes in history — nothing less than to dethrone the Spanish monarch and place his own brother on the vacant throne. The old king, Charles IV,[1] was cajoled into abdicating, and his son Ferdinand was forced to renounce his rights. Napoleon then, in the spring of 1808, deliberately took his brother Joseph from the throne of Naples and placed him on the throne of Spain — all this without a word of approval from the Spanish people.

When Joseph entered Madrid' in July he found the whole country seething with discontent and rebellion. In addition to fighting for their Bourbon dynasty the Spaniards had two reasons for refusing longer to bow to the yoke of Napoleon. First, he had quarreled with the pope and held him a prisoner, and they were ready to avenge their spiritual father at any cost. Second, they loved their medieval government and wanted none of the progressive innovations of the French Revolution.

King Joseph was forced to flee from his capital. Several French armies were captured or driven back, by half-equipped armies or guerrilla bands emerging from the mountains. Napo-

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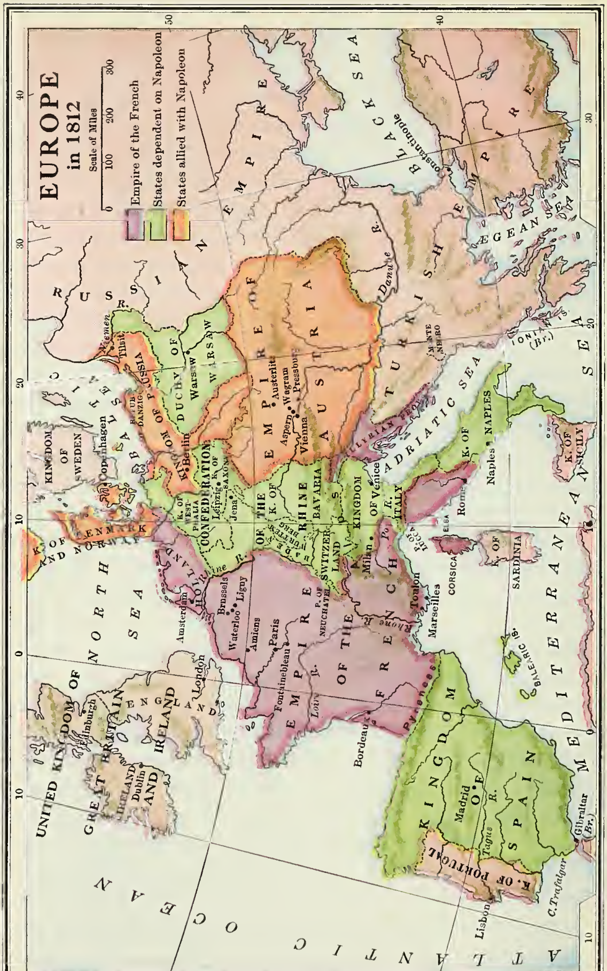
[1] The emperor Charles V, who reigned in the first half of the sixteenth century, was Charles I of Spain.


EUROPE
in 1812
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300
Empire of the French
States dependent on Napoleon
States allied with Napoleon
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
K. OF DENMARK AND NORWAY
UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
ENGLAND
IRELAND
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA
DUCHY OF WARSAW
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
K. OF WESTPHALIA
K. OF SAXONY
K. OF BAVARIA
WURTTEMBERG
BADEN
BERG
HOLLAND
SWITZERLAND
P. OF NEUCHATEL
EMPIRE OF THE FRENCH
EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA
ILLYRIAN PROV.
KINGDOM OF ITALY
K. OF NAPLES
K. OF SICILY
K. OF SARDINIA
CORSICA
ELBA
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
K. OF PORTUGAL
TURKISH EMPIRE
MONTENEGRO
IONIAN IS. (Br.)
BLACK SEA
ÆGEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BALEARIC IS.
Gibraltar (Br.)
C. Trafalgar
Edinburgh
Dublin
London
Amsterdam
Brussels
Waterloo
Ligny
Amiens
Paris
Fontainebleau
Bordeaux
Marseilles
Toulon
Milan
Venice
Rome
Naples
Madrid
Lisbon
Copenhagen
Berlin
Danzig
Tilsit
Warsaw
Leipzig
Jena
Austerlitz
Wagram
Aspern
Vienna
Pressburg
Constantinople
Niemen R.
Rhine R.
Rhone R.
Loire R.
Po R.
Danube R.
Tagus R.
Ebro R.
Pyrenees
50
40
30
20
10
0

Facing 485

leon was enraged. In person he marched into Spain with 200,000 men and recaptured Madrid. But he could not remain, and no sooner had he gone than the Spanish rebellion was as widespread as before.

Herein lay England's opportunity to throw an army upon the Continent. Sir Arthur Wellesley (wĕlz′lĭ), afterward the Duke of Wellington, entered Spain by way of Portugal, which was also hostile to the French. Then followed the long Peninsular War, in which all the French forces were driven out of Spain. This uprising of the Spaniards proved the first great step in the overthrow of Napoleon.

Napoleon's hurried departure from Spain was caused by another war brewing in Austria, and thither he marched with a large army. But in this case he found his task more difficult than he had found it at Austerlitz. In May, 1809, Napoleon was defeated at the battle of Aspern (äs′pẽrn), near Vienna, but in July he won a victory at the battle of Wagram[1] (vä′gräm), and Austria was again humbled to the dust. In the treaty of Vienna which followed, Austria was obliged to yield to the conqueror large sections of her territory, including four million of her inhabitants.

428. The Disastrous Russian Campaign (1812).—The records of history present no more tragic military event than Napoleon's hapless campaign into Russia. The Continental System brought no advantage to Russia. When Alexander fully realized that its only purpose was to cripple England in order to gratify the ambition of the French emperor, he grew lukewarm in its enforcement. For this and other reasons Napoleon became angered. He determined to humble the Muscovite empire, the only remaining great continental power that had not come under his control. He raised a mighty army of 500,000 men and marched into Russia, in June 1812. He expected to take about three years to conquer the Russian Empire, after which he proposed to make a great expedition to the Orient and strike India. But the fates had in store for him a very different outcome.

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[1] The picture facing page 475 is from a painting by Vernet, a favorite artist of Napoleon. It is in the famous Gallery of Battles in the palace of Versailles.

The wily tsar played a skillful game. His army retreated day after day, devastating the country and luring the French farther and farther from their base of supplies. But once did the tsar offer battle, and then Napoleon won a costly victory.

The invaders entered Moscow in the middle of September. Most of its 250,000 inhabitants had fled, and but a few thousand stragglers and vagabonds remained. Then the city caught fire; how, no one knows. It may have been by the order of Alexander. So great was the blaze that one could see to read at midnight ten miles away. Five weeks Napoleon waited, expecting the tsar to make overtures of peace. But Alexander made no move. He well knew that his great ally — the Russian winter — would soon come to his rescue. Moscow was in ashes. The surrounding country was devastated. Nothing but an early retreat could save the French army from perishing.

The retreat began late in October. It proved a tragedy. The blasts of winter soon overtook the fleeing men. The Russian cavalry harassed and cut them down. Besides, they were starving, and to the thousands of unburied bodies of their comrades who had perished on the inward march, tens of thousands of the retreating army were added. Nine weeks of that dreadful march, and the famishing remnants of the once grand army, now scarcely twenty thousand, crossed the friendly boundary into the duchy of Warsaw.

429. The War of Liberation; the Battle of the Nations. — Napoleon never recovered from the frightful Russian disaster. He had left his retreating army and hurried to Paris, where with almost superhuman energy he raised another army. He knew that now he must fight again, not for conquest, but for his throne.

In the early summer of 1813 he was in the heart of Germany with half a million men, many of them raw recruits. The magic of his name was broken by the Russian campaign. Long-oppressed Central Europe was arming against him. It was a

"War of Liberation." At first he won an empty victory or two, but the decisive battle was yet to be fought.

At this critical juncture Austria might have joined Napoleon had he agreed to restore part of her stolen territory; but this he refused to do, and she joined Russia and Prussia against him. Sweden, led by Bernadotte, also joined the allies.

Slowly and irresistibly the allied armies closed in from three sides on the French army near Leipzig (līp′sik). Then came the tremendous three days' conflict, the battle of Leipzig, or the "Battle of the Nations," October 16–18, 1813. Napoleon fought like a wild beast at bay, but he could not win; his enemies overpowered him, and a little later he was fleeing across the Rhine with a remnant of his broken legions.

Then came the crash of a falling empire. All Germany rose against the sometime conqueror. Holland, Bavaria, Naples hastened to join his foes. King Jerome Bonaparte fled for his life from Westphalia. Wellington was pressing in across the Pyrenees on the south. And at this moment Napoleon made the greatest blunder that he ever made. He rejected (November, 1813) an offer of peace, making the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees the boundaries of France. The man whose will had been law for half the world could not settle down to the peaceful government of a single nation. With scorn he rejected the proposal; and the allied armies moved upon France. With desperate ferocity this man of the iron will defended his capital during the winter months; but the odds were against him. Paris was captured in March, 1814, and Napoleon abdicated his throne at Fontainebleau (see page 408) on April 11. He took leave of his generals in the Court of the Farewells, before the main entrance to the palace.

The fallen emperor was banished to the island of Elba, near the western coast of Italy, and was made sovereign of the island.

430. Return from Elba. — On the downfall of Napoleon a congress of nations met at Vienna to reorganize the states of Europe. Among other things it decided to reinstate the Bourbons on the throne of France. The next heir was a brother of Louis XVI. He had fled from France in the early days of the Revolution and had not set foot on French soil for nearly a quarter of a century. He was now a fat, gouty old gentleman, good-natured and with little ability. He entered Paris and became king under the title of Louis XVIII,[1] but his reign was unpopular with many classes.

In the tiny island-realm of Elba the tireless energy and the burning ambition of Napoleon could find no contentment. Having heard of the dissatisfaction with the Bourbon rule in France, and of ominous dissensions in the Congress of Vienna, the emperor (he had not been deprived of his title) decided on the most daring adventure in all his amazing career — a dash into France for the recovery of his throne. With 800 of his old guard, who had been his companions in exile, he landed on the southern coast of France on March 1, 1815. His irresistible personal magnetism was never more in evidence. Multitudes of people on his journey to Paris received him with tears and shouts of joy. Marshal Ney (nā), who had fought by his side in many a battle, but had gone over to the king, was sent to capture him. When he came in sight of his old commander, he burst into tears and clasped him in his arms.

Louis XVIII fled at the approach of Napoleon. The emperor entered Paris and set up his government, changing the constitution and giving the people much greater liberty than he had ever done before.

The Congress of Vienna was astonished at the news of the Corsican's return. The rulers of Europe refused to accept his professed desire for peace. They pronounced him an outlaw, and four of the great powers pledged themselves each to keep 150,000 men in the field until he should be finally overpowered.

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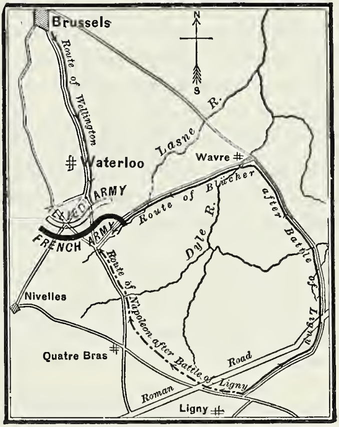
[1] The new king proclaimed this as the nineteenth year of his reign, ignoring the republic and the Napoleonic empire. The little son of King Louis XVI, though he died in childhood and never wore the crown, was considered by the royalists as Louis XVII.

431. **Waterloo** (June 18, 1815). — Nothing could save the restored throne of Napoleon but war, and war only for a little time. The allied armies were gathering over Europe, and France would soon be hemmed in on every side. Early in June the emperor, having raised his last army, started out for his last battle. But it was not a large army, less than 100,000 men. The old-time vigor of the days of Danton, or of Austerlitz, was gone.

The Duke of Wellington with a motley army of English, Dutch, Belgians, and Germans was near Brussels, and Blücher (blü'kẽr) with an army of Prussians was hastening to join him. Napoleon determined to engage them singly and prevent their union if possible. Hastening to the north, he struck Blücher at Ligny (lēn-yē') on June 16 and drove him back with heavy loss. Two days later he encountered Wellington near the village of Waterloo'. There is hardly a doubt that Napoleon would have won the day had not Blücher reached the field in the afternoon. It then required nearly half the French army to fight the Prussians. This gave Wellington an immense advantage. The battle raged till nightfall. At length the French wavered and became demoralized. They turned and fled from the field in great disorder and confusion.


Brussels
N
S
Route of Wellington
Lasne R.
Wavre
Waterloo
ALLIED ARMY
Route of Blücher
after Battle of Ligny
Dyle R.
FRENCH ARMY
Route of Napoleon after Battle of Ligny
Nivelles
Quatre Bras
Roman Road
Ligny

Movements Leading to Waterloo

Thus ended the military career of perhaps the ablest commander of men in the annals of history. Eloquently Victor Hugo says that Napoleon was overthrown, not on account of Blücher, but on account of God. "It was time that this vast man should fall. His excessive weight in human destiny disturbed the balance and would have proved fatal to civilization had it endured."

432. St. Helena. — Napoleon fled to Paris from the gory field of Waterloo. Again he was forced to abdicate his throne. Hastening to the coast, a hunted fugitive, he hoped to find passage to America, but the coast was too well guarded by British vessels. He then went aboard a British warship, the *Beller'ophon*, and begged the right to end his days in seclusion in England. But as Napoleon had broken faith with the allies at Elba, they were unwilling to trust him again. He was banished to the rocky island of St. Hele'na, far away in the Atlantic Ocean between Brazil and the coast of Africa. Here, under heavy guard, with 1300 miles of rolling sea between him and the mainland, the mighty Corsican, who had transformed the world as no other man ever did, fretted away the rest of his life brooding over the glories of the past.[1]

433. Napoleon in History. — The French Revolution may be said to have covered twenty-six years, 1789–1815. The first ten years were a period of destruction, of fire and violence and storm, during which the old royal structure of society was torn to pieces.

The early enthusiasm then abated. The people were listless, weary of violence and bloodshed. The pendulum was swinging back. But the great work was only half done. A new edifice had to be reared. Who was there equal to the task? Danton had been guillotined, Mirabeau was gone. There was not a great constructive statesman in France.

Then came Napoleon, the man of gigantic intellect, of boundless ambition, capable of all tasks that might fall to him. He picked up the reins of government that lay limp before him. The nation was electrified with energy and vitality at his magic touch. For fifteen years following, the history of this man and the history of Europe were almost one and the same thing.

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[1] Napoleon died on May 5, 1821, of cancer of the stomach, at the age of 52. In 1840 his remains were taken to Paris and placed in a magnificent tomb.

It is not easy to say what Europe might have been without Napoleon. It is true that his motives were not high. His personal ambition was abnormal and he lacked the greatest thing in life — a high-born moral principle. But he was an instrument in bringing about great benefits to civilization. He saved France from falling into confusion and he shook up Central Europe in such a way as to make it impossible for the parts ever again to be laid as they were before. Whether the career of Napoleon was a blessing or a calamity to the world must be determined by weighing the good that he wrought against the lives of the million men he sacrificed in accomplishing it.

Questions and Topics. — I. Relate the early life of Napoleon Bonaparte. Tell of his Italian and Egyptian campaigns. What plan did he use in seizing the French Government? Would such seizure be possible in our country? Why?

II. How did Napoleon manage the government after he gained control of it? Describe the Consulate. What was the Concordat? the treaty of Amiens? Code Napoléon? Why did Napoleon sell Louisiana to the United States?

III. Why did Napoleon not permit the pope to crown him? On what was the ambition of Napoleon apparently based? Describe Trafalgar, Austerlitz. Is sea power very important in war? Why? Describe the peace of Tilsit.

IV. In what way did the Continental System weaken the power of Napoleon? Why did the Spaniards rise against him? Write an essay on the Russian campaign. What was the War of Liberation? Describe the return from Elba; the battle of Waterloo; the imprisonment at St. Helena. Give an estimate of Napoleon's life work.

Events and Dates. — Napoleon Bonaparte, born 1769; becomes emperor of France, 1804; overthrown at Waterloo, 1815. Sale of Louisiana, 1803. Battles of Austerlitz and Trafalgar, 1805.

For Further Reading. — Every school library should have one or more lives of Napoleon. Among the best are those by Sloane and Rosebery. Stephens, *Revolutionary Europe.* Mathews, *French Revolution.*

CHAPTER XXXV

EUROPE AFTER THE REVOLUTION

I. THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA; CHANGES IN EUROPE

434. Changes in Germany. — The nation that suffered most and was benefited most by the Napoleonic wars was Germany. It is true that in Austria, then a part of Germany, the principles of the French Revolution took but little immediate hold, but in Prussia and other northern states there was a change for the better.

Napoleon destroyed many petty states and reduced the number of independent governments from about three hundred to thirty-eight. This was a first step toward laying the foundations of a united Germany. Still more important was the abolition of serfdom in most of the German states.

As early as October 9, 1807, under the guidance of an able statesman, Baron Stein (shtīn), the king of Prussia decreed the end of serfdom in all his remaining dominions; also the right of the peasant to buy land and live as free as his master had done before. By this reform great numbers of peasants were awakened to new life and quickened patriotism, as was shown in the War of Liberation a few years later (sec. 429). Petty tyranny and perverted justice held sway no longer in Prussia, although constitutional government was reserved for a later generation.

435. Work of the Congress of Vienna. — No more distinguished body has met in modern times than the Congress of Vienna.[1] Many of the royal rulers of Europe were present in person, others through representatives. The two most interesting non-royal figures in attendance were Prince Metternich (mĕt′ẽr-nĭk), of

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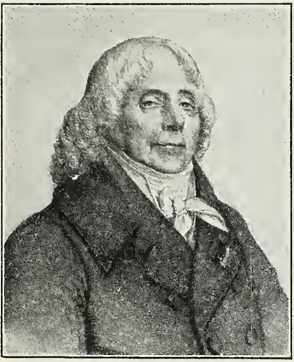
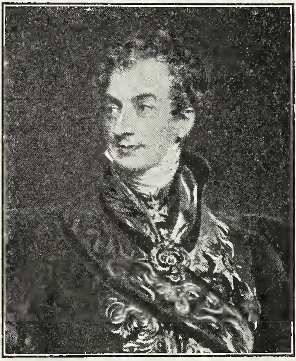
[1] The "Congress" of Vienna was never really organized. It was a series of informal meetings of diplomats who made treaties among themselves, each securing as good a bargain as he could.

Austria, and Tal'leyrand, who represented France. Metternich, as we shall notice later, was an enemy of all reform. Talleyrand, who had been faithful to Napoleon during his ascendancy,[1] quickly turned to the Bourbons on his fall. It was he who suggested the return of the Bourbons and who saved France from being despoiled and disrupted by the angry allies that had suffered so many blows in the recent wars. As it was, the Congress took from France all the territory she had annexed since the beginning of the Revolution.



TALLEYRAND



METTERNICH

Belgium (the former Austrian Netherlands), which had been incorporated with France, was now added to Holland; and the kingdom of the Netherlands, as the combined country was called, was put under the rule of the House of Orange, descendants of William the Silent (sec. 319).

In Germany the Holy Roman Empire was not restored, but the thirty-eight German states were formed into a loose union, called the German Confederation. Prussia was given half of Saxony

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[1] It is of interest to note that Talleyrand acted as Napoleon's agent in the sale of Louisiana to the United States.

(which had been faithful to Napoleon to the last) and a large tract on the Rhine (map following page 498).

Austria received Venice and Lombardy, while nearly all the other states of Italy were restored to their respective princes who had reigned before the wars.

Sweden lost Finland to the Russian tsar, but on the other hand Norway was taken from Denmark (sec. 256) and placed under the rule of the Swedish king. Bernadotte (secs. 425, 429) remained the heir to the Swedish throne, and he and his family have occupied it since 1818.

The treatment of Denmark was like that of Saxony; both had been in league with Napoleon, and both were now punished, the one by the loss of half its territory and the other by the loss of Norway.

Napoleon's duchy of Warsaw, with reduced boundaries, was made a kingdom of Poland, with the tsar of Russia as its king.

Switzerland, the favored of all the states, was left free to govern itself; and the powers agreed not to invade it or to send troops across its territory.

Great Britain had been the most persistent of all Napoleon's enemies. She had for years furnished the allies with money, and had incurred an immense war debt. In the final settlement at Vienna, Great Britain received Cape Colony in South Africa, Ceylon, and a few small islands. Her empire, now including Canada, India, South Africa, and Australia, was the most extensive the world had ever seen.

II. The Spirit of Reaction

436. **Prince Metternich.** — The ruling spirit in the Congress of Vienna was Metternich, the great Austrian minister. He was of noble but not of royal blood. He was a statesman of keen and comprehensive mind, and might have made a notable name in history but for his "stand-pat" and reactionary principles. He despised liberal ideas and reforms. He believed in the divine

right of kings and hated democracy in all its forms. He was an uncompromising foe to the principles of the French Revolution.

It was chiefly the influence of Metternich that parceled out the small states at the Congress of Vienna without consulting their people. Note what was done: Belgium, against the bitter protests of its people, was added to Holland; the Poles longed for self-government, and most of them were placed under the tyranny of the tsar of Russia; Norway, Venice, and other sections received similar treatment, against the fierce resentment of the people.[1] Switzerland was the only republic left in Europe. All the peoples who had attained self-government since the opening of the Revolution, including the French themselves, were thrust back under despotic monarchs, — and all this by the rulers without the consent of the people. It was the period of reaction. But the spirit of liberty had been awakened and was destined to prevail in the end, as we shall see in later chapters.

437. **Repression Gone Mad.** — The astute Metternich, though unable to undo all the work of the French Revolution, determined that its principles should go no further. He organized the great nations in a league to aid one another in putting down any movements of the people toward attaining more liberal conditions. Spies and secret police were sent prowling about to ferret out any signs of conspiracy.

The Prussian king had promised his people a constitution at the time of the War of Liberation in 1813, and other rulers had made similar promises. Metternich saw to it that these promises were not kept. Still the people cherished hopes for more liberal governments. Authors, journalists, professors and students of universities, kept agitating the subject, and many of them were sent into exile for such crimes as wearing the colors that stood for liberty or singing patriotic songs. In 1817 were issued the

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[1] These acts of the Congress of Vienna are what are alluded to in President Wilson's address to Congress, February 11, 1918, in these words: "that peoples and provinces are not to be bartered about from sovereignty to sovereignty as if they were mere chattels and pawns in a game."

Carlsbad Decrees, by which liberty of speech and of the press was denied the people of the German states, students' clubs were suppressed, and spies were sent to the universities to report the teaching of any liberal ideas by the professors.

III. Uprising in Southern Europe

438. Revolts in Spain, Naples, and Portugal. — As Spain was the first of the nations in which the people rose against Napoleon, Spain took the lead also in rising against the repressive policy of Metternich. In 1812 the Spaniards, having with the aid of Wellington ejected the armies of Napoleon, adopted a constitution. But soon after the exiled Bourbon king, Ferdinand VII, was restored to his father's throne, he trampled the constitution in the dust and restored the absolute government and the Inquisition. Spain was precipitated back to the Middle Ages. The result was an insurrection covering the whole country. The tyrannical king, a coward as well as a knave, then swore to observe the constitution.

The Spanish revolt soon spread to Portugal and to Naples, which was, like Spain, again under a Bourbon ruler. In both countries the people rose in rebellion against tyranny, adopted constitutions modeled on that of Spain, and forced their respective kings to accept them. Here was the opportunity for the shrewd Metternich, more a tyrant than Napoleon ever was, to put his policy of intervention to the test.

439. The Holy Alliance. — The Holy Alliance was merely a league of fraternal friendship of the European monarchs, called forth in 1815 by the sentimental tsar of Russia. It pledged the signers to govern their respective countries in accordance with the principles of the Bible, with "justice, charity, and peace." It had little effect on European politics and would have been forgotten but for the fact that the term has been wrongly used to designate the league that was later formed for the purpose of putting down popular revolts.

Metternich, alarmed at conditions in Spain, Portugal, and Naples, called a congress of the sovereigns to meet at Troppau (trŏp′ou) in Austria. At this meeting, Austria, Russia, and Prussia signed a declaration pledging themselves (1820) to join their forces in crushing uprisings of the people wherever such might occur.

It was not long before an Austrian army moved into Naples, where the liberals, badly organized, were soon defeated. The treacherous king, in violation of his oath, resumed his absolute government and ruthlessly punished the defeated liberals. The same year (1821) an Austrian army did a similar service in northern Italy, where the people, longing for freedom, had risen against their oppressors.

Spain was next to fall under the Metternich system of repression. Another congress of the powers was held at Vero′na in 1822, and France was induced to join the three eastern powers. It was here decided that a French army be sent to suppress the Spanish constitution. This was done, and King Ferdinand again became an absolute monarch.

440. The Monroe Doctrine. — Meantime the Spanish colonies in America had been in revolt. While Napoleon was in power these colonies had enjoyed much liberty, having refused to acknowledge Joseph Bonaparte as their king. But on the return of a Bourbon ruler to the Spanish throne an effort was made to reduce them to their former condition of colonial dependence. Having tasted the sweets of liberty, they refused to give them up. They rose in revolt, one after another, from Argentina to Mexico. King Ferdinand sought to induce the powers at Verona to aid him in subduing the American colonies, and they might have done so but for two very serious obstacles — Great Britain and the United States.

Great Britain had bitterly protested against Metternich's policy of repression. She had saved Portugal from the fate of Naples and Spain. And now when it was proposed that the powers join together to subdue Spanish America, Great Britain determined to oppose the project.

At this time the British Secretary of Foreign Affairs was George Canning, a broad and liberal-minded statesman, who proposed to James Monroe, President of the United States, that the two countries join in an alliance to protect Spanish America.[1] This country preferred to act alone, and in December, 1823, the President issued the famous Monroe Doctrine. The main feature of this " doctrine " is a declaration that no part of America must be considered as subject for future colonization by any European powers, and that any attempt to extend their systems to any portion of this hemisphere would be considered dangerous to our peace and safety and as showing an unfriendly disposition toward the United States.

This attitude of Great Britain and the United States quickly put an end to all thought of aiding Spain, and as Spain was too feeble to put down the revolt alone, the former Spanish-American colonies were left to themselves, and they have since then enjoyed complete independence.

441. **The Greek Revolution.** — The attitude of Great Britain and the United States with respect to Spanish America caused the first break in the Metternich system. The second came with the Greek revolution. For centuries the Greeks had been subject to Mohammedan Turkey. For centuries they had paid tribute and had furnished men for the Turkish armies. The Turks in turn treated the Greeks with contempt and had stolen away their fairest women. Inspired by the French Revolution and incensed that the Congress of Vienna had done nothing for them, the Greeks in 1821 rose against their oppressors. Almost at a stroke they gained possession of More'a, known in ancient history as the Peloponnesus, and of Central Greece. The Turkish sultan was enraged at their success and the next year he sent large armies into the revolted territory. The Greeks fought with fierce bravery from their mountain defiles and on the sea, where they destroyed many Turkish vessels with their fire ships.

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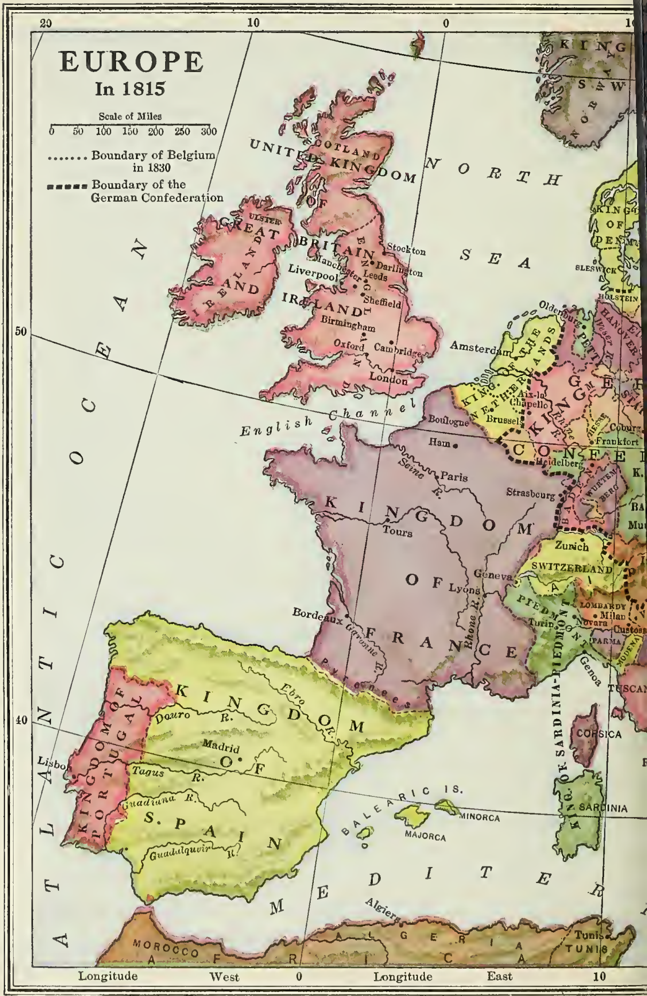
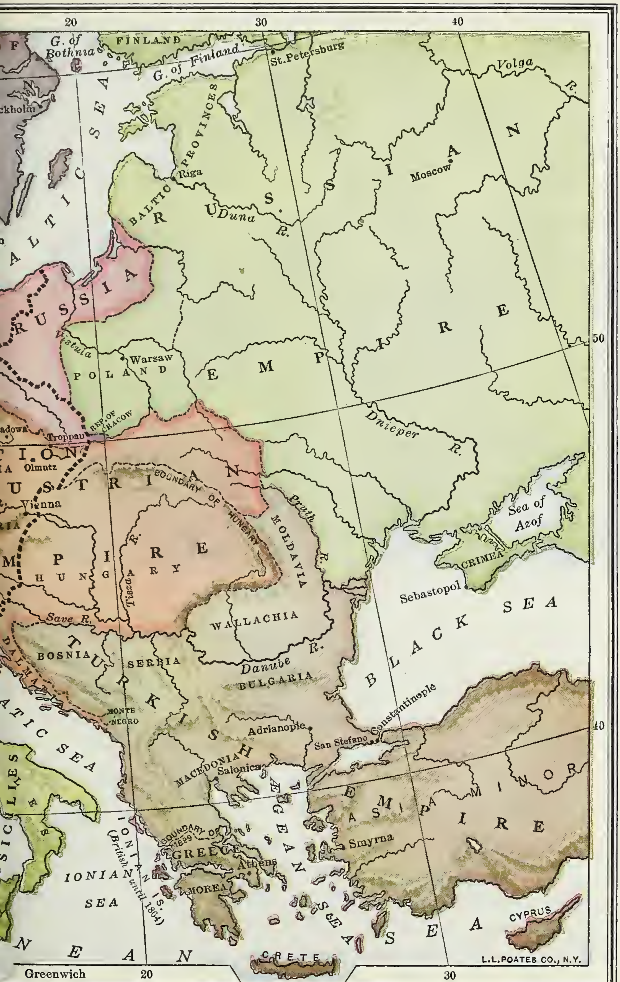
[1] England's object was not only to protect liberty, but also to keep her lucrative trade with South America from falling under Spanish control.

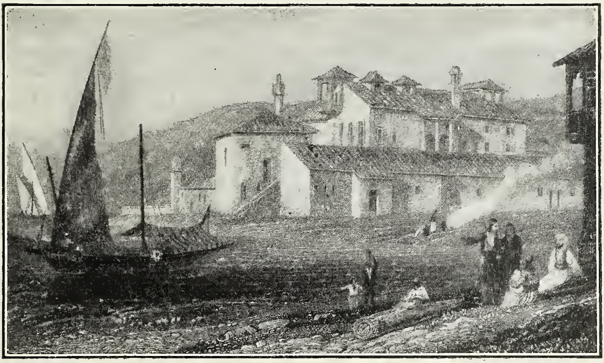


EUROPE
In 1815

Scale of Miles
0 50 100 150 200 250 300
.... Boundary of Belgium in 1830
▬▬▬▬ Boundary of the German Confederation
20
10
0
50
40
Longitude
West
0
Longitude
East
10
UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
SCOTLAND
ENGLAND
IRELAND
ULSTER
Stockton
Darlington
Manchester
Leeds
Liverpool
Sheffield
Birmingham
Oxford
Cambridge
London
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
English Channel
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
SLESWICK
HOLSTEIN
Oldenburg
HANOVER
Weser R.
Elbe R.
Amsterdam
KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS
Aix-la-Chapelle
Brussels
Boulogne
KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA
HESSE
Rhine R.
Coburg
Frankfort
GERMAN CONFEDERATION
Heidelberg
BADEN
WURTEMBERG
Strasbourg
Ham
Paris
Seine R.
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Tours
Geneva
Lyons
Rhone R.
Bordeaux
Garonne R.
Pyrenees
Zurich
SWITZERLAND
PIEDMONT
Turin
LOMBARDY
Milan
Novara
Custoza
PARMA
MODENA
Genoa
TUSCANY
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA-PIEDMONT
CORSICA
SARDINIA
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
Lisbon
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
Ebro
Douro R.
Madrid
Tagus R.
Guadiana R.
Guadalquivir R.
BALEARIC IS.
MINORCA
MAJORCA
MEDITERRANEAN
Algiers
ALGERIA
Tunis
TUNIS
MOROCCO
AFRICA


20
30
40
G. of Bothnia
FINLAND
G. of Finland
St. Petersburg
Volga R.
ckholm
BALTIC SEA
BALTIC PROVINCES
Riga
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
Duna R.
Moscow
PRUSSIA
Vistula
Warsaw
POLAND
REP. OF CRACOW
Dnieper R.
50
adowa
Troppau
Olmutz
Vienna
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
BOUNDARY OF HUNGARY
HUNGARY
Tisza R.
Pruth R.
MOLDAVIA
Sea of Azof
CRIMEA
Sebastopol
BLACK SEA
Save R.
WALLACHIA
Danube R.
BOSNIA
SERBIA
BULGARIA
DALMATIA
MONTE NEGRO
TURKISH EMPIRE
Adrianople
Constantinople
San Stefano
40
MACEDONIA
Salonica
ADRIATIC SEA
SICILIES
IONIAN IS. (British until 1864)
BOUNDARY OF 1829
GREECE
Athens
MOREA
AEGEAN SEA
ASIA MINOR
Smyrna
IONIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CYPRUS
CRETE
L.L. POATES CO., N.Y.
Greenwich
20
30

For years the contest raged with cruel ferocity: thousands of captives were massacred in cold blood by both sides. The people of Europe generally sympathized with the Greeks in their heroic struggle for liberty; but rulers of the Metternich school saw in it another French Revolution and they would have aided the Turks if they dared. The sultan in desperation called to his aid his powerful vassal, the Pasha of Egypt, and the Greeks, after six years of a struggle as desperate as any people ever endured, were about to be overwhelmed when help came at last.



House where Byron Died[1]

In England the sympathy with the Greeks was widespread, and it was increased by Lord Byron, the most popular poet of his time. His stirring lyric beginning,

> "The Isles of Greece, the Isles of Greece,
> Where burning Sappho loved and sung,"

touched the hearts of his countrymen.

But Byron did more. He went to Greece to offer his life in the cause of liberty. Thousands of others were led to do the same. At length the British government was moved to act; also Russia, for the Russians hated the Turks, and the Greeks were of the same religion as the Russians. France then joined them, and the three nations sent a fleet to Grecian waters. In October, 1827, the great naval battle of Navarino (nä-vä-rē'nō) took place, in which the allied fleet annihilated the Turkish fleet. Turkey was forced to yield and in 1829 Greece was granted independence.

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[1] Byron died in Greece of fever in 1824.

IV. FRANCE FROM 1815 TO 1830

442. Reign of Louis XVIII. — On the final fall of Napoleon at Waterloo the fat old king, Louis XVIII (sec. 430), returned to Paris and resumed his reign. He awakened no enthusiasm. The people cared nothing for the Bourbons.

Louis was a man of good common sense, and he was no tyrant. He recognized the main principles of the Revolution, equal rights before the law, liberty of the press, and religious toleration. He granted the people a constitution which provided for a legislature of two houses, one of which was elected by the people who paid a certain amount of taxes. The king was wise enough to see that it was impossible to restore the old condition of absolutism and divine right, even if he wished to do so; but he kept up the fiction of absolutism by insisting that the constitution was granted from the goodness of his heart and not because the people had any right to it.

With the restoration of the Bourbons to the French throne the exiled nobles returned by thousands. They expected to enjoy all their old privileges and hoped to wipe out all traces of the Revolution. Their leader was the king's younger brother, who later succeeded to the throne as Charles X. King Louis opposed their demands as best he could, but he grew feeble and scarcely able to resist them. When he died in 1824, the reactionary party had gained almost complete control.

443. Charles X, the Last of the Bourbon Dynasty (1824–1830). — The last three of the famous Bourbon dynasty to wear the French crown were the three brothers, Louis XVI, guillotined in

1793, Louis XVIII, and Charles X. No more reactionary king ever sat on the French throne than Charles. His twenty-five years of exile had taught him nothing. He believed in the divine right of kings. He cared nothing for the rights of the people, and he set out to restore the church and the nobility to the position they had held before the Revolution. But a bowstring drawn too taut will break. At first he was apparently successful. He secured a grant of two hundred million dollars from the public treasury to repay the returned nobles for the property they had lost in the Revolution. The aristocratic party was in full control, but there was a vigorous liberal minority that was rapidly becoming a majority. In the elections of 1830, though only the rich had the right to vote, the liberals won the new Chamber of Deputies by a large majority. At such a moment any one but a blunt-minded Bourbon would have yielded to the will of the people, but the obstinate Charles X would concede nothing. Even Metternich advised him to remember 1789. Instead he issued decrees that cost him his throne, drove him into exile, and brought on the Revolution of 1830. A further notice of this must be left to a later chapter (sec. 469).

Questions and Topics. — I. In what respect did the Napoleonic wars benefit Germany? To what degree were the former French boundaries restored by the Congress of Vienna? What other important territorial changes were made? What was done with Poland?

II. How did Metternich suppress freedom of speech and of the press? What are the benefits of a free press in any country?

III. Describe the revolt in Spain and its suppression. What was the origin of the Monroe Doctrine? Write an essay on the Greek revolution.

IV. Give an estimate of Louis XVIII; of Charles X.

Events and Dates. — Meeting of the Congress of Vienna, 1814, 1815. Monroe Doctrine promulgated, 1823. Greece becomes independent of Turkey, 1829.

For Further Reading. — Andrews, *Historical Development of Modern Europe.* Fyffe, *History of Modern Europe.* Seignobos, *Political History of Europe since 1814.* Phillips, *Modern Europe, 1815–1899.*

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

I. The Great Inventions

444. **Conditions before the Industrial Change.** — On a preceding page (sec. 371) the remarkable fact was noted that with all man's progress there had been little improvement in the means of travel and transportation and in the implements of agriculture and manufacturing, from the days of the Roman Empire, or even from the time of ancient Egypt and Babylonia, down to about 1750. Spinning and weaving were still done by hand and the farmer still scratched the ground with a clumsy wooden plow. The change that has come since then has been marvelous. It had its beginning in the same half century that brought the French Revolution, and it has affected the world even more than that mighty political upheaval.

The cotton industry in England dates from about the time of Charles I. Cotton was imported from India, and importers and others interested in cotton were bitterly opposed by the men of the woolen and linen industries. People wearing cotton were attacked on the streets. Parliament passed laws prohibiting the use of cotton, but the people evaded the laws and finally (1774) the last of the anti-cotton laws was repealed.

The methods of transportation were very crude in the eighteenth century in all European countries. Six horses were required to draw a loaded coach and even then it often stuck in the mud. People usually traveled on horseback. Grain was reaped with the scythe and the sickle and threshed with jointed sticks called flails, or it was trodden out on barn floors by oxen or horses, as in the old Egyptian days.

The old guild system had gradually disappeared, and in the textile industries the domestic system took its place. The family became the unit in manufacturing. Usually the family engaged in spinning and weaving had also a little farm of a few acres on which they made part of their living. A man would own his instruments of spinning and weaving, would buy his wool and linen, and, aided by his wife and children, would turn out cloth and sell it to dealers. This domestic system prevailed until the factory system, to be noticed later, took its place.

445. **Early Improvements.** — Among the first improvements were those in agriculture. It was discovered that a rotation of crops was an advantage, also that beets and turnips could be raised without injury to the soil on land formerly left fallow to "rest." This enabled the farmer to raise more live stock, which in turn made more fertilizer for the soil.

Threshing machines came into use just before the French Revolution, and the iron plow about 1800. This enabled the farmer to plow deeper and to secure much better results from his farm than were possible with the old wooden plow.

Improved road building began in England about 1750. Turnpikes were built between the larger cities. A Scotchman named McAdam, whose name has been perpetuated in the macadamized road, was one of the leading road builders of the time.

446. **Invention of the Steam Engine.** — In both transportation and manufacturing, a revolution was made possible by the invention of the steam engine, for which the world is chiefly indebted to James Watt (sec. 372). The old engine on which Watt made improvements was little more than a cylinder and piston, had only an up-and-down stroke, was slow in movement and wasteful of fuel. Watt corrected these defects and later improved his first models so as to make his engine turn wheels. This made it practicable and applicable to transportation and all sorts of manufacturing machinery. Improvements in the production of iron soon followed. The use of coke made from coal took the place of charcoal in the smelting of iron, and this with the improve-

ments in mining reduced the cost of steam engines. Before the invention of the steam engine, windmills, water wheels, and beasts of burden lightened man's work to some degree, but nearly all machines, such as then existed, were run by human muscular power.

447. The Spinning Jenny and the Power Loom. — About a century before the invention of the steam engine by Watt, the spinning wheel had been invented, for making thread or yarn from wool or other fiber. It took the place of the old distaff and spindle, which had been in use since ancient times. Weaving was a cumbersome process before the invention of the "flying shuttle" by John Kay in 1733; in weaving wide breadths of cloth the shuttle had to be thrown from one side to the other by two persons. The spinning wheel could produce only one thread at a time, and one weaver, after Kay's invention, could keep seven or eight spinners busy.

The next great want, improved methods of spinning, was met by James Hargreaves, a weaver, who invented the "spinning jenny" about 1765. By this device eight spindles set upright in a row were revolved by means of a wheel mounted on a frame. The spinning jenny was so simple that a child could work it, and it did the work of about ten of the old spinning wheels. But the end had not been reached. Other important improvements were soon to follow.

In 1771 Richard Arkwright, a barber, invented a new kind of spinner. Besides the spindles, as in Hargreaves's jenny, Arkwright used a series of rollers which drew out the threads by revolving at different rates. This he called a "water frame" because it was run by water power. A few years later Samuel Crompton combined the best features of the jenny and the water frame and produced a machine that he called the "mule." With the mule one spinner could produce at least 150 threads at a time.[1]

These wonderful improvements in spinning left the weavers far behind, and in order that they might keep pace with the spinners a weaving machine had to be invented. It was soon forthcoming.

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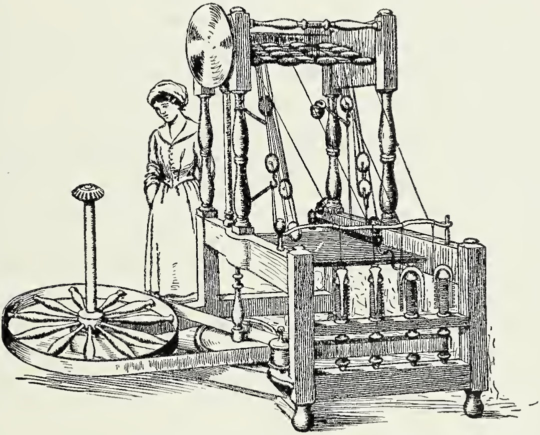
[1] With the great spinning machines of the present time one man, aided by two or three children, can spin 12,000 threads at a time.

Edmund Cartwright, a clergyman, set himself the task of supplying the need. He invented the power loom (1785), by which the shuttle is thrown from side to side automatically. The power loom enabled the weavers to keep up with the spinners, and by the use of these various inventions with later improvements the art of cloth making was wonderfully changed. One person could do what had required more than a hundred before the time of the inventions.[1]



ARKWRIGHT'S FIRST SPINNING FRAME

The next great step was to apply the steam engine to the running of the new machines. At first they were run by water power, but this was uncertain and in many places it was not available.

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[1] Of equal importance with these inventions was the cotton gin, invented by Eli Whitney, an American, in 1794, for separating cotton fiber from the seed. The cotton gin enabled one person to do the work of 250 before its invention.

About 1785 the problem of motive power was solved by the steam engine, which by the use of shafts and cranks was made to turn wheels. It was first applied to spinning machines and later to all sorts of machinery.

One great result of the new machinery was to lessen the cost of cloth and many other manufactured articles.

II. THE RISE OF THE FACTORY SYSTEM

448. Changes in the Lives of the Workers. — The tremendous change in the industrial world brought about by the invention of machinery was not an unmixed good. It increased the wealth of the nations by leaps and bounds, but it brought distress rather than happiness to the common workers. The domestic system was replaced by the factory system. The rural homes of the spinners and the weavers, who had lived on their little farms, owned their own looms and wheels and sold their own products, were broken up. The workmen could not afford to purchase the expensive machinery nor could they, with the old methods, compete with the products of the new. In some places the people rose in riot against the new order, declaring that the new inventions took the bread out of their mouths. They attacked factories and destroyed machinery. Hargreaves, inventor of the spinning jenny, was mobbed by his fellow-workmen and driven from his home.

But the wheels of progress cannot be stopped because somebody is in the way. Scarcely an important law is passed or a new machine invented that does not bring hardship to somebody.

449. The Factories. — The new machinery was costly. Only the rich could afford to purchase it. Factories were built in the cities and equipped with the necessary machinery. Thereby two new classes were added to society — the rich manufacturer or capitalist, and the common laborer who worked in his factory.

The spinners and weavers, unable to compete with the factory, had to give up their cottage homes and move to the city and become factory workers. Long monotonous rows of tenement houses were built for them, without the cheering garden and often without even a foot of green grass in front. No longer were the workers their own masters; they had lost their independence. They did not own the factory nor the machinery, and they had nothing to do with controlling or selling the product of their work. They worked for wages.

The factory was owned by a capitalist, or perhaps a company of them forming a corporation. Often the capitalist lived in a distant city and saw little or nothing of the laborers. The factory was directed by a hired manager, and the standing of the manager with his employer depended on the size of the dividends the factory would yield. He had every incentive, therefore, to get as much as possible out of the workers, and the result was long hours, hard work, and low wages.

The medieval guild system (sec. 242), in which the employer and employee lived and worked in harmony, was followed by the domestic system (sec. 444), and this gave way in turn to the factory system.

450. Labor and Capital. — One of the most serious problems in our modern life is that which arises from the relations between capital and labor, or more accurately, between capitalists and laborers. It is an outgrowth of the factory system.

The change that came to the workman was not a happy one. In passing from the domestic to the factory system he lost not only his rural home and his independence, he was even obliged to sacrifice his skill as a workman. Under the old system he took pride in the work of his hands, in turning out better and better products; under the new he lost his skill, his pride in aiming at perfection; he became only a part of a great machine with its monotonous, ceaseless hum of turning wheels from morning till night.

Employed in the factories were great numbers of women and children as well as men. In the beginning the toil was arduous and the hours were long, often fourteen or even sixteen a day.

At length the government had to interfere and pass a series of "factory laws," to be noticed in our next chapter.

The laborer and the capitalist were dependent each upon the other. Under the new system neither could get along without the other; but their conditions in life were so unlike that they became hostile to each other. Under the old guild system or the domestic system a paid workman looked forward to the time when he would become a master, but the factory system offered little opportunity to the common workman. His life day after day and year after year was a continuous grind, the work in itself being monotonous and uninteresting. His wages were low and his home was perhaps a cellar or a garret.

The capitalist concerned himself but little about the comfort and welfare of his employees. He was in a race for wealth, and the harder they toiled the greater were his dividends. No wonder they came to hate their employer and no wonder that a bond of sympathy between the two classes was not easy to establish.

The labor problem has never been fully solved in any country, but since the early times of the factory system labor conditions have changed greatly for the better. One cause of this change is the coming into existence of labor organizations, called trade unions. In many countries the laborers have formed unions, from which, unlike the old guild, the employer is rigidly excluded. The union may benefit the worker in many ways, but its chief function is to keep up wages. The union and not the individual worker bargains with the capitalist or corporation, and between them they agree on a wage scale which, it is safe to say, is higher than it would be if each worker had to drive a separate bargain with the employer.

III. IMPROVEMENTS IN TRANSPORTATION — CANALS, STEAMBOATS, RAILWAYS

451. **Construction of Canals.** — The marvelous advance in manufacturing that came with the factory system and the intro-

duction of machinery would have been of less significance but for the improvements in transportation. To bring the raw material to the factory and to carry away the finished product better means of transportation were needed than the country roads or even the turnpike afforded. The first improvement came in the form of canals.

The use of artificial waterways dates back to antiquity. In Egypt and Babylonia canals were used for transportation. In modern times Prussia and France had taken the lead. The first canal in England, with locks by which a boat could be raised from a lower to a higher level, was constructed in 1761 between Manchester and a coal mine seven miles away.

During the forty years following this beginning, canal building was pushed with great vigor in England, and by 1800 the country was well supplied with artificial waterways. A boat was drawn by one or more horses driven on a towpath beside the canal. Bulky goods — ores, grain, lumber, machinery, and the products of the factory — could be transported by means of the canal for a fraction of the former cost. The canal was almost the only great improvement of the time that did not employ the steam engine.

452. Steam Navigation. — The adaptation of the steam engine to the moving of vessels on the water is one of the great achievements of modern times. The sailing vessels of Columbus or of William Penn required two or three months to cross the Atlantic. The modern "ocean greyhound," carrying a hundred times as great a load, will make the same journey in five days. The change was wrought by steam navigation.

The name of Robert Fulton, the American inventor, is always associated with this subject. Fulton, after making some fruitless efforts on the Seine River in France, won his great victory on the Hudson in 1807.[1] He had built the *Clermont*, which, propelled by a steam engine brought from England, moved up-stream from New York to Albany at the rate of four miles an hour. The great problem was solved. From that day to the present the building of steam vessels has been one of the great industries of the world. Soon after Fulton's success on the Hudson the demand for the new craft was widespread, and within the next quarter century the rivers, lakes, and bays of Europe and America were dotted with puffing steamboats. It was not until 1837 that the first steamship crossed the Atlantic Ocean.

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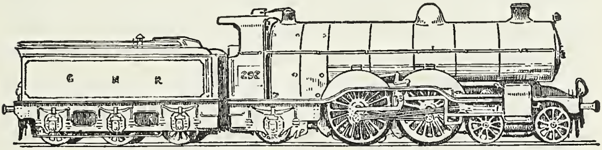
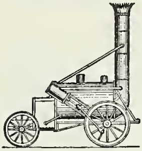
[1] Fulton improved on the work of John Fitch, a greater genius, who had experimented on the Delaware about twenty years earlier.

453. **Building of the Railroads.** — More important even than steam navigation is transportation by railroads, which soon followed. Since a steam engine could turn wheels and move the machinery of a factory or of a steamboat, why should it not be applied to a locomotive? The problem of the steamboat was solved in America; that of the railroads reached its first solution in England.

As the name of Robert Fulton is inseparably linked with the invention of the steamboat, so the name of George Stephenson (stē′ven-son) will always be connected with the beginnings of steam railways. Stephenson, the son of a miner, was too poor to go to school, but he taught himself to read and write. He applied himself to the task of adapting Watt's engine to the moving of coal from the mines. His first locomotive was completed in 1814 and was used only for hauling freight. But in 1825 he perfected a line in northern England between Darlington and Stockton, twelve miles apart, for the carrying of both passengers and freight. The rails at first were made of wood with iron bands or straps nailed on top to protect them.

Thus began one of the great industries of modern times, one that has revolutionized the commerce of the world in all civilized lands. In 1828 the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad was begun in America, but at first horses and even sails as well as engines were employed in moving coaches. In 1830 a railway line was opened between Liverpool and Manchester and a few years later it was extended to London. France made a beginning of building railways as early as 1828. In Bavaria and Belgium a beginning was made in 1835. Prussia began a little later, but once begun the work of constructing railways there went on rapidly. Europe now has nearly as many railways as the United States. In Germany, Belgium, Switzerland, Italy, and some other countries the railways are chiefly owned and operated by the government.





The "Rocket" and a Modern English Locomotive

The "Rocket," the best of Stephenson's early locomotives, was a four-wheel engine supported on springs, with a boiler six feet long. It weighed four and a quarter tons, and in the first run on the Liverpool and Manchester railway it made an average speed of fifteen miles an hour. The modern English locomotive weighs nearly sixty tons, and travels several times as fast as the little "Rocket."

Hand in hand with the development of the steamboat and the railway came greater facilities in communication, almost as important as either in our modern life. First came the reduction of letter postage to the two-cent basis in England, through the efforts of Rowland Hill, in 1839. The example of reducing postage was soon followed in other countries; the most usual rates for letters being two or three cents for any distance within a country, and five cents for transmission to any foreign country. About 1840 the electric telegraph was invented, and the telephone in 1876 (both American inventions), and to these was added wireless telegraphy (1894–1903) by Marco'ni, an Italian.

The above-mentioned inventions affecting industries, transportation, and communication are but a few of the most important among the thousands of inventions and improvements that have caused the wonderful progress of the world in the last century and a half.

IV. Results of the Industrial Revolution

454. Making the World's Living. — The wealth of the nations has increased many fold since the beginning of the industrial revolution. Through the invention of machinery man has bridled the forces of nature and made them work for him. A notable characteristic of natural force is its tirelessness. Men and animals soon become weary with toil. Nature never does. A locomotive will draw a heavy train for hours without rest and is never weary. A factory may run day and night; it needs no rest. Through the use of natural forces, manipulated by machinery, the world makes its living with a fraction of the human energy before required.

But a machine is utterly blind and devoid of sense. It is worthless without the human attendant. A family horse may keep the road and take you safely home on the darkest night, but the automobile never will. It requires the guidance of the human hand. So it is with all kinds of machinery, and from this fact vast numbers of workers are required to carry on the world's work.

We have noticed that the change to the worker that came with the new system was in some respects a change for the worse; but in two respects he has benefited. First, he has the advantage of cheaper commodities necessary to his daily life; and second, he enjoys the paved and lighted streets and the sanitary conditions of the city, such as were impossible before the increased wealth was created by the new system.

455. The World's Commerce. — Since the tremendous increase in the quantity of manufactured goods and their easy transportation by canals, steamships, and railroads, the nations have come to trade with one another on an immense scale. The world's international trade in the Middle Age was not so great in a whole year as it is now in one day. The people of any country may now enjoy the products of all other countries, and no one pretends to satisfy his own wants by his own labor. The farmer no longer makes his own wagons and harness and clothing. He buys these things from the factory and in turn he raises more products of the farm for the market.

Thousands of vessels ply the waters of all seas, carrying the products of farm and factory from land to land, while the railroads furnish inland transportation in all civilized countries. We think nothing of finding on our tables every day coffee from Brazil, tea from China, bananas from Central America, oranges from California, and fish from Alaska — a result of the fact that the industrial revolution has made the world a commercial unit.

The great inventions and improvements described in this chapter did not cease with the industrial revolution. From that time to the present the progress has continued, as we shall notice in a later chapter (secs. 558, 559).

Questions and Topics. — I. Can you give a reason for the slow progress in inventions? Why did Parliament pass laws prohibiting the use of cotton? Compare such laws with our law laying a tax on oleomargarine. Describe the domestic system. Describe improvements in farming and road building. On what principle did Watt base his steam engine? Describe the spinning jenny, the water frame, the mule, the power loom.

II. In what way were the workers worse off on account of the new inventions? Discuss the early relations between the capitalist and the laborer. What is a labor union?

III. Describe the era of canals and the beginning of steam navigation. Who was George Stephenson? What were the improvements of this period in the means of communication?

IV. What is meant by bridling the forces of nature? In what respects is a laborer benefited by the new conditions? What are the advantages of international trade?

Events. — Replacing of the guild system by the domestic system and the domestic system by the factory system. The canal system followed by steam transportation.

For Further Reading. — Wallace, *The Progress of the Century*, and *The Wonderful Century*. Gibbins, *Economic and Industrial Progress of the Century*.

THE PROGRESS OF DEMOCRACY

CHAPTER XXXVII

NINETEENTH CENTURY REFORMS IN GREAT BRITAIN

I. Before the Great Reforms

456. The Last of the Georges. — After a reign of sixty years King George III of Great Britain (grandson of George II), died in 1820 and left the British throne to his son, George IV. For many years the aged king had been an imbecile and the son had been regent. But neither the king nor the regent had any great control of the government after George III's attempt at personal rule was broken down by his failure to subdue the American colonies in the Revolutionary War (1775–1783). Besides the many important events of his reign already mentioned, one great change was made in the British government. In 1800 the Irish Parliament was induced to disband and Ireland was given representation in the British Parliament. From this time on, the full name of the country was the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, although it was commonly called the United Kingdom, or Great Britain, or even England.

All the Georges were men of mediocre ability, and the weakest of them was George IV (1820–1830). He was narrow and selfish and vain. He never won the respect of the people, and their general contempt was reflected by Parliament when it refused his urgent request to grant him a divorce from the queen. But England had long since passed the time when her government and prosperity depended on the character of her sovereign.

The country was on the verge of some important reforms, inspired in part by the French Revolution, but delayed by the wars with Napoleon and by the influence of the school of Metternich.

The most brilliant English statesman in the eighteen-twenties was George Canning, the man who first proposed to our American President what we call the Monroe Doctrine. Canning was also the one who led Great Britain to take part in the Greek war against the Turks. But he did not live to witness the outcome.[1] Soon after Canning's death the Duke of Wellington, the conqueror of Napoleon at Waterloo, became premier.

457. Repeal of the Test Act; Catholic Emancipation. — The two early reforms that paved the way for greater reforms in the following decade were the repeal of the Test Act (1828) and the removing of the disabilities of the Catholics (1829).

The Test Act had been placed on the statute books in the time of Charles II (1673). It was meant to exclude Catholics and Protestant dissenters from holding office by requiring office-holders to take the communion of the established Church of England. For a hundred years and more it had not been strictly enforced. It was now repealed after being on the statute books for 155 years.

This act of Parliament, however, did not relieve the Catholics, owing to other disabling laws, some of which dated back as far as the Tudors. A Roman Catholic was debarred from many privileges, including the right to serve in Parliament. The repeal of these laws, known as the Catholic Emancipation Act, was brought about largely by the brilliant Irish orator, Daniel O'Connell. With a masterly hand O'Connell organized his countrymen, held great meetings and swayed the crowds with his eloquence. The bill as finally passed removed many disabilities from the Catholic people, but they were still excluded from the British throne and from a few other high positions.

II. PARLIAMENTARY REFORM IN 1832

458. Need of Reform. — The greatest of British reforms in centuries was the reform of Parliament in 1832. It had been talked of for a hundred years. It had been the dream of William Pitt the younger, but various causes had prevented that great statesman from making his dream a reality. For hundreds of years there had been no redistributing of the seats in Parliament as the shifting of the population demanded. A town or district that had one or two representatives in Parliament would continue to send the same number though it had fallen into decay and ceased to have inhabitants. An example or two will illustrate.

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[1] Canning had long been a leading figure in the Cabinet, but he held the premiership only four months (April–August, 1827) during the last year of his life.

Old Sarum in southern England was an extreme case. Far back in the time of Edward III it had been a town with two representatives in the House of Commons. The town fell to ruin, not an inhabitant was left, and yet, strange to say, the landlord who owned the site continued to send two members to Parliament! Seaford was another " town " with two members in the Commons and no inhabitants. In one district there was only one voter. He met himself in convention, made a motion that he be sent to Parliament, seconded and put the motion. It was carried unanimously. More than half the members of the Commons were controlled by peers and landlords who gave or sold them their office.[1]

This is but half the story. The other half is equally astonishing. The great cities of Leeds, Birmingham, Manchester, and Sheffield, which had grown up within two hundred years, had no representation in Parliament. Certainly that body needed reorganizing. Though it contained many able and patriotic men, it was practically a Parliament of landlords. It did not fairly represent the English people.

459. Opposing Parties. — As is usual in most countries, there was a progressive party that favored reform and a conservative party that opposed it. The two great political organizations were the Whig party, which included most of the progressives, and the Tory party, to which the majority of the conservatives belonged. The leader of the Tory party at this time was the Duke of Wellington. Honored as he was by the people for his great services in war, he was a born aristocrat and cared little for the rights of the people. In a notable speech in 1830 the duke resisted all change, declaring that the old system was perfect and " no better system could be devised by the wit of man." The speech had a profound effect on the country. It forced Wellington's resignation as premier and ended his political career.

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[1] The insignificant places that sent members were known as "pocket boroughs," and those in which the seat was sold were called "rotten boroughs."

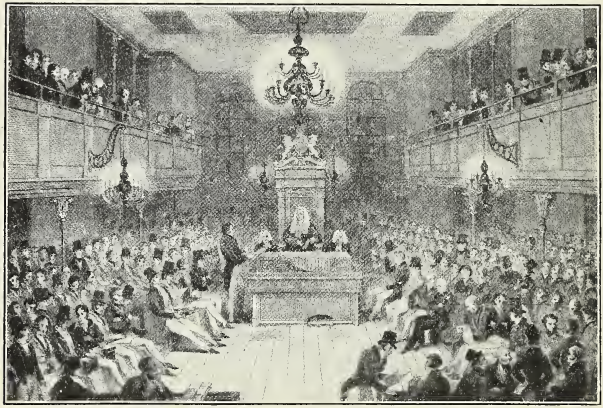
Earl Grey, a tireless Whig leader who had been in public life for many years, was then called on to become premier and to form a Cabinet. He consented on the condition that parliamentary reform be made the main question.

Aside from those who, like Wellington, were aristocrats by temperament, there were two classes bitterly opposed to reform; first, the peers and landlords who controlled so many members of the Commons, and second, those members who in voting for reform would vote to abolish the seats they occupied. With these forces in the opposition it is doubtful if any reform bill would have been enacted but for the pressure from without. The people rose in riotous fury and Parliament heeded the demands of its master.

460. The British Government. — It will be well to review here the method of working of the British government. An American Congress always serves the full time for which it is elected. A British Parliament seldom does so. In our country the executive and legislative branches are entirely separate; in Great Britain they are combined, the premier with his Cabinet being at the head of both.

The British premier, who is the leader of the party in power, proposes laws to the House of Commons. If any important measure of his fails to pass, either he and all his Cabinet resign, or else Parliament is dissolved and a new election is held without delay. If the Cabinet resigns, some leader who can control a majority of the Commons may be appointed premier and will form a new Cabinet.

Parliament may be dissolved at any time in the year, no matter how short its tenure has been. The main issue in the election is the measure that was defeated by the old Parliament. The dissolving of Parliament because of the loss of a measure and ordering a new election is called "appealing to the country." If the premier's party is successful in the new election he continues in his office as premier, and proceeds to have the new Parliament pass the measure that the old one had defeated. If the opposing party wins, its leader becomes premier, that particular measure is not brought up, and the new Parliament proceeds to other business. There is some truth in the boast of the British that their government is more democratic than ours.



Interior of the House of Commons

As it appeared before it was burned in 1834. The present Houses of Parliament, which are occupied by both Lords and Commons, were erected after 1840. (Compare with picture on page 606.)

461. Passage of the Reform Bill. — Earl Grey was the premier, supported by the Whig majority in the Parliament that met in 1830. He had been in the forefront of public life for more than forty years, but the crowning work of his long career was the parliamentary reform bill. His most faithful helper was Lord John Russell, who introduced the bill and made an unanswerable speech in its support. But on its second reading (all bills must be read and passed three times in order to become laws), it passed by a majority of only one.

Grey believed the margin too small to insure the safety of the bill. He thought it best to dissolve Parliament and appeal to the country. The king opposed this but was forced to give way, and a new election was held.[1] In spite of the pocket boroughs the Whigs won a great victory. Russell again introduced the reform bill and it passed by a majority of more than a hundred. But in the House of Lords it was defeated by a majority of forty-one.

Would the people of Great Britain permit this staid old body of dignitaries which represented nothing but wealth and titles to thwart their will and bring all their efforts to naught? When the people are determined they can get what they want from their lawmakers, and the British people had determined to have a reform of Parliament. As the news of the defeat spread over the land the people broke into riot and violence. The carriages of the lords were stoned in the streets of London. Tumultuous meetings were held in many towns, castles were burned, the country was on the verge of rebellion or even anarchy.

In the face of all this the lords held firm for many months and the rioting continued. Earl Grey resigned. The king tried to form a Tory Cabinet and failed. He then recalled Grey, but Grey refused to resume office unless his Majesty would agree to the one method by which the House of Lords could be forced, namely, the creating of enough new peers to insure the passing of the bill. The king hesitated, but at last petulantly gave way.

This was enough. The victory was won. The lords did not want a crowd of upstarts thrust into their ranks, and when the Commons passed the bill a third time and sent it to the upper house, it was promptly passed without any new peers having been created. The victory of the people was complete. On the 7th of June, 1832, the Parliamentary Reform Bill, one of the greatest measures in English history, became a law.

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[1] William IV, 1830–1837, was now king, having succeeded his brother, George IV, in 1830, at the age of 65 years. The sovereign had gradually lost power over Parliament. This triumph of Parliament in practically ordering its own dissolution was a final blow to the royal power. Parliament has since controlled the nation.

462. **The Results of the Reform.** — The great reform of 1832 was one of those basal changes in a nation's policy whose effects are far-reaching and permanent, though not perhaps immediately apparent. This Reform Bill was a great step in the direction of making Parliament representative of the people and no longer a close corporation under a few titled landlords. It gave the right to vote to about 650,000 men who had not been voters before. It took away the representation from fifty-six of the pocket boroughs and reduced thirty-one others from two representatives to one. The 143 seats thus gained were given to populous communities and towns, some of which had had no representation before.

Incidentally the great reform of 1832 brought other profound changes in the British government. The bill was forced through at the behest of public opinion and in spite of a hostile king and a hostile House of Lords. It ushered in the era of government by public opinion. Never since then has the monarch or the lords had much to say concerning the government of the realm. The House of Commons is supreme, the agent and the mouthpiece of the public will.

III. Abolition of Slavery

463. **Slavery in Modern Times.** — In preceding chapters we have noticed that human slavery was almost universal in ancient times. It had its origin in enslaving instead of killing captives taken in war. During the Middle Ages serfdom and feudalism took the place of slavery. The enslavement of negroes by Europeans for commercial purposes had its beginning about

half a century before Columbus discovered America. As one writer informs us, a Spanish trader brought with him in one of his voyages from the west coast of Africa to Spain, about 1442, ten little black boys. His intention was to exhibit them to his countrymen and take them back to their people on his next voyage. But when some rich Spaniards offered him money for them he sold them. On his next voyage he brought more negroes and found a ready market for them, and within a few years other traders were in the same business. Negro slavery spread to nearly all the countries in Europe, and it was introduced into Central and South America a hundred years before the founding of Jamestown, Virginia.

At the close of the American Revolutionary War all our thirteen states had slaves, but those in the north gradually emancipated them while the southern states did not. Until the African trade was stopped our southern states and the West Indies constituted the greatest slave market in the world.

464. The Three Stages in England. — In the countries of Europe the slaves were few as compared with America. In England there were probably about 14,000 who had chanced to be left here and there through the operations of the traders.

The first of the three stages or epochs of slavery in Great Britain and her colonies ended with the famous decision of Lord Mansfield in 1772. There was no law in England for or against slavery, and it was believed that if tested in the courts it would be condemned as an evil and abolished. A case known as the Somerset case was brought before Lord Chief Justice Mansfield (in 1772). His decision set free every slave in England, but did not affect the slave trade nor slavery in the British colonies.

The second great step was the abolishing of the slave trade. There is no darker page in history than that which tells of the African slave trade. The inhuman traders would kidnap or purchase of the so-called negro "kings" great numbers of blacks and carry them to the markets of the West Indies and elsewhere. They were packed in the dark hold of a ship in a manner so horrible that great numbers of them died on the voyage. One trader threw 132 negroes overboard in order to collect the insurance. To rouse the British public against this nefarious business Thomas Clarkson spent many years of his life, sacrificing his health and his fortune. After the subject had been before Parliament at intervals for twenty years a law was passed forbidding any slave ship to clear from a British port or land a slave in any British colony. This law was enacted in 1807, the same year in which the American Congress passed a law prohibiting the African slave trade.

The third and final act came in 1833, the year following the Parliamentary Reform. It had taken a quarter of a century after the passage of the slave-trade act in 1807 to awaken the people to a vital interest in the wretched creatures in the West Indies. Stories of the cruel treatment had been published — stories of branding, mutilating, scourging till the back was a mass of raw flesh and then tying the victim in the broiling sun for a whole day. After years of such tutelage from unquestioned sources the public feeling was awakened and the demand that Parliament act became irresistible. In August, 1833, a law was passed freeing all slaves in all British colonies gradually within the next few years, and a sum equal to about $100,000,000 was set apart to pay the slave owners for their loss.

IV. Factory Reform

465. The Cry of the Children. — "Do you hear the children weeping, O my brothers?" wrote Mrs. Browning, referring to the toiling children in the factories. In the chapter on the Industrial Revolution we noted the building of great factories which employed thousands of people, children as well as men and women. There are many kinds of work about a factory that a child can do, such as tying threads, tending machines, and packing boxes. The very small wages paid to children made it profitable to employ great numbers of them. In the large manufacturing cities of northern England and even in the mines thousands of children from six years old and upwards were employed. Some were the children of shiftless parents who were willing to live off the toil of their offspring; others had been purchased from their inhuman parents or kidnaped in the slums of London. The nation at last was awakened to a cruel wrong, and the pressure on Parliament for action became intense.

In the early eighteen-thirties a committee of Parliament was appointed to make a searching investigation. Conditions revealed by this committee were shocking. Great numbers of children as young as six, seven, or eight years were compelled to work from fourteen to sixteen hours a day — not a moment for play, not an hour in school. When they came to their squalid homes at night and sat down to their meager supper they would often fall asleep at the table with the meal half finished, the want of sleep overpowering the want of food. In the early morning they often had to be awakened with switches that they might be in time to answer the call of the factory whistle. If they had a little time off on Sunday they spent it in sleep in order to rest their weary little bodies for the coming week of toil. Large numbers of children were literally worked to death. If they did not sink into the grave after a few years of such hardship, they grew up undersized and deformed.

466. The Factory Laws. — The first of the British "Factory Laws" was passed in 1833 and was followed by others in succeeding years. The chief items in this splendid series of laws are as follows:

Women and children must not be employed at all in the mines, nor in the factories at night, nor more than ten hours a day. Children under nine must not be employed, and between nine and fourteen only on half time — three days a week or half of each day — the remaining time to be spent at school. Factories must be kept at a reasonable temperature, ventilated, clean, and sanitary. Dangerous machinery must be fenced. These laws have come to be rigidly enforced through the aid of government inspectors, some of whom are women.

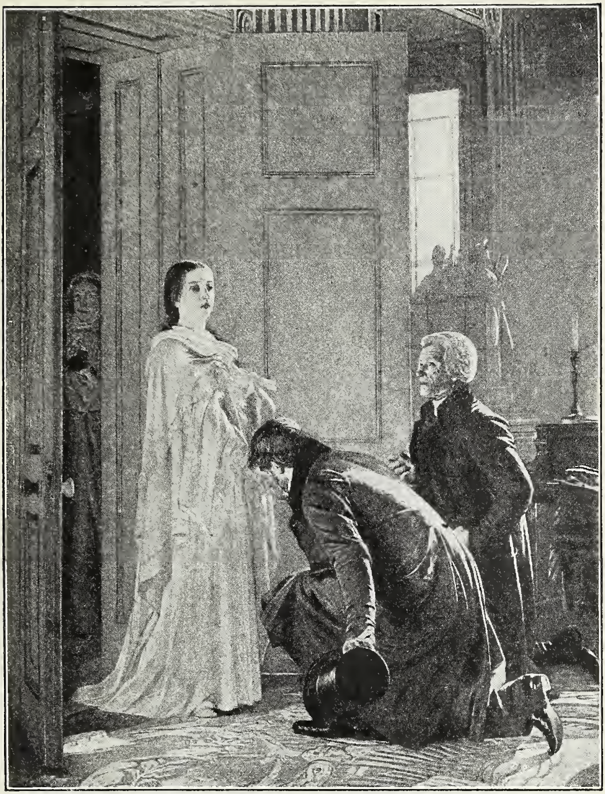
V. REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS, 1846

467. **The Accession of Victoria** (1837). — Before the final reform of the first half of the century came the accession of the good queen whom the English people fondly remember. William IV, who had succeeded his brother, George IV, in 1830, reigned seven years. Like his brother George, William died without heirs, and the next heir to the throne was a young daughter of their younger brother, the Duke of Kent, who had died many years before. This daughter, Victoria, was born in 1819, a few months before the death of her father, and was most carefully trained by her mother, the Duchess of Kent.

At five o'clock in the morning, June 20, 1837, the Lord Chancellor of England and the Archbishop of Canterbury came to Kensington Palace to apprise the young princess that her uncle the king had died and that she was to be elevated to the British throne. When some hours later she met her council all were greatly pleased with her quiet self-possession. The people of England soon learned to love their girl-queen, and they continued to love her during her long reign of sixty-four years, the longest in English history. Queen Victoria came to be a model of womanhood, not only to her own people, but also for the whole civilized world. But she had little indeed to do with shaping the government of Great Britain. William IV made some pretense, though with little success, of holding the ministers responsible to him; but since his death no British sovereign has made any attempt at personal government. The ministry is responsible to the House of Commons alone, and the people are sovereign because they elect the members of the House of Commons.

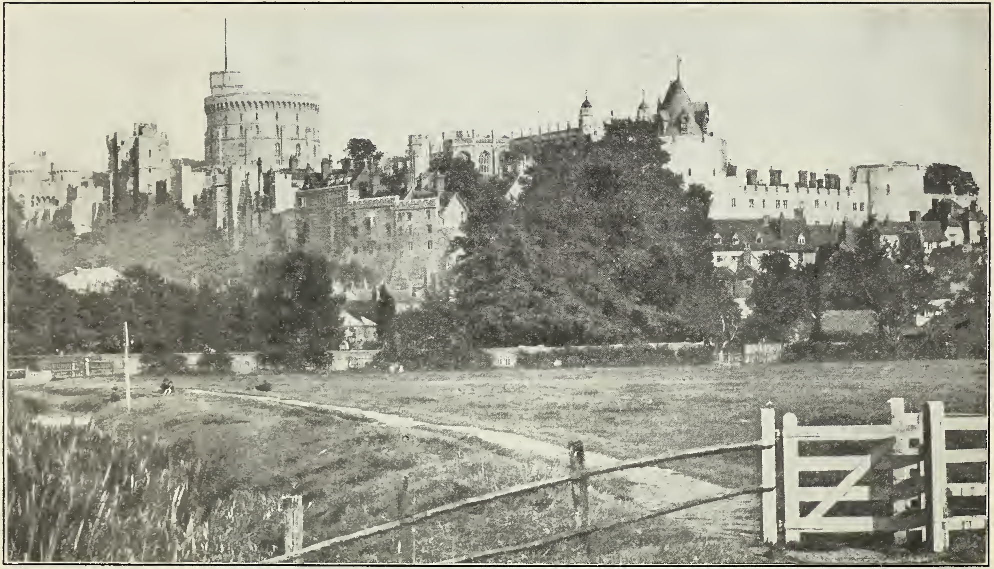
468. **Repeal of the Corn Laws.** — The reform of Parliament in 1832 was a measure of great importance. It divided the governing power between the upper and middle classes, whereas it had formerly rested with the upper classes alone. But it did not bring much relief to the ordinary workmen.

One of the crying needs of the time was to remove the high



Victoria Greeted as Queen — Painting by H. T. Wells, R.A.

The princess had just celebrated her eighteenth birthday when the king died, in June, 1837. The Archbishop of Canterbury and the Lord Chancellor started at once to carry the news to the young sovereign. They reached Kensington Palace in the early dawn and knocked for some time before they roused the sleepy porter. When the door was opened they announced that they must see Victoria. The answer was, "The princess is in such sweet slumber that we do not venture to disturb her." Then the archbishop said, "We are come to see the queen on business of state." Victoria did not wait to dress, but entered the room in a loose robe, her hair hanging down her back. Her eyes were bright with tears as she listened to the announcement that she was the queen.



Windsor Castle as Seen from the Thames River tariff duties on imports of wheat and other grain (which the English call corn) so as to make the price lower for the poor. The great landholders resisted, as they had resisted the reform of Parliament. They cared little about cheap food for the poor. For many years they had reaped large profits from the products of their great estates because of the corn laws. They would not give up their advantage without a struggle, but they had to yield in the end.

In 1841 Sir Robert Peel, one of the greatest Englishmen of his time, became premier. He belonged to the conservative party that opposed free trade, but he was a man of high purposes and sincere motives. He looked into the matter thoughtfully and at length he saw the justice of the demand of the poor for cheaper bread.

The two men, however, who did most to bring about the repeal of these obnoxious laws were Richard Cobden and John Bright. Both became members of Parliament, but before being elected to that body they had formed the Anti-Corn-Law League and had roused the people throughout the country by their eloquent speeches to great crowds gathered to hear them, and by a free use of the press. It was clearly proved that the high duties on grain, though formerly useful in encouraging farmers, had come to be a benefit to the rich landlord only and were very oppressive to the poor.

Meanwhile Prime Minister Peel had become a convert to the new doctrine. He was convinced that these protective laws protected only the rich at the expense of the poor. Then came

Windsor Castle, shown on the opposite page, was the home of Queen Victoria. This estate, near London, was presented by Edward the Confessor to the monks of Westminster Abbey. It was purchased later by William the Conqueror, who was attracted by the forest as a hunting preserve, and who built a castle in the center. The building was enlarged by Henry I and Henry II. Edward III had the old castle torn down and a new one built, and he reconstructed the Round Tower. This tower, the highest part of the castle, became a meeting place for the order of the Knights of the Garter, instituted by him, the spot being selected because of a legend that King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table used to meet there. Under later monarchs the castle was several times extended, and the restoration made under Queen Victoria left it one of the finest royal residences in the world.

the most potent of all arguments — a famine in Ireland (1845). The chief food of the Irish was potatoes; a failure of that crop brought great suffering, nor was it possible for them to import breadstuffs owing to the high prices caused by the tariff duties.

Early in 1846 Sir Robert Peel introduced a bill to repeal the corn laws. He carried it through, but in so doing he sacrificed his popularity among the landed gentry and broke up his own party. The Liberal party then took up the subject and repealed many other tariff laws. Within the next few years the whole protective system was swept away and Great Britain became a purely free trade country.

One of the immediate results of the change was a great drop in prices and a corresponding relief to the poor. The contention that free trade would ruin the factories was disproved by the wonderful growth of manufacturing in Great Britain since then; and the assertion that protection was necessary to keep up wages was answered by the fact that wages remained higher in Great Britain than in any protected country on the Continent.

SIDE TALK

Passing of the Reform Bill. — T. B. Macaulay, the English historian and statesman, was a young member of Parliament at the time of the passing of the great Reform Bill in 1832. The following description of its first passing by the House of Commons is from a letter he wrote to a friend soon after the event:

"Such a scene as the division of last Tuesday I never saw, and never expect to see again. If I should live fifty years, the impression of it will be as fresh and sharp in my mind as if it had just taken place. It was like seeing Cæsar stabbed in the Senate house, or seeing Oliver taking the mace from the table; a sight to be seen only once, and never to be forgotten. The crowd overflowed the House in every part. When the strangers were cleared out, and the doors locked, we had six hundred and eight members present — more by fifty-five than were ever in a division before. The ayes and noes were like two volleys of cannon from opposite sides of a field of battle . . ."

The writer goes on to describe the scene after the bill had passed. "We set up a shout that you might have heard to Charing Cross, waving our hats, stamping against the floor, and clapping our hands. The tellers scarcely got through the crowd; for the House was thronged up to the table, and all the floor was fluctuating with heads like the pit of a theater. But you might have heard a pin drop as Duncannon read the numbers. Then again the shouts broke out, and many of us shed tears. I could scarcely refrain. And the jaw of Peel fell; and the face of Twiss was as the face of a damned soul; and Herries looked like Judas taking his necktie off for the last operation. We shook hands, and clapped each other on the back, and went out laughing, crying, and huzzaing into the lobby. And no sooner were the outer doors opened than another shout answered that within the House. All the passages and the stairs into the waiting rooms were thronged by people who had waited till four in the morning to know the issue. We passed through a narrow lane between two thick masses of them; and all the way down they were shouting and waving their hats, till we got into the open air."

Questions and Topics. — I. What can you tell of George Canning? the Test Act? What is meant by Catholic Emancipation?

II. What is meant by the redistribution of the seats in Parliament? Describe the tendencies of the Whig and Tory parties in 1830. Write out a comparison between the working of the British government and ours. Compare the power of the American President with the British premier. Give an account of the passing of the Parliamentary Reform Bill. What is government by public opinion? How large a factor is public opinion in our government?

III. Give an account of the beginning of the enslavement of negroes by white men in modern times. Tell about the three stages of slavery in Great Britain and her colonies.

IV. Describe the condition of the children in the factories early in the nineteenth century. Describe the factory laws in 1833 and the following years.

V. Tell the story of Victoria. Why did Sir Robert Peel change his mind about the tariff? What are the advantages of a tariff? The disadvantages?

Events and Dates. — Great reform in the British Parliament, 1832. Antislavery decision of Lord Mansfield, 1772. Abolishing of the British slave trade, 1807. Parliament abolishes slavery in all British colonies, 1833. First of the British factory laws, 1833. Accession of Victoria, 1837. Repeal of the corn laws, 1846.

For Further Reading. — McCarthy, *History of Our Own Times*; also the histories mentioned before by Fyffe, Andrews, Hayes, and Seignobos.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE SECOND ERA OF REVOLUTION IN EUROPE

I. The Revolution of 1830

469. **Fall and Flight of Charles X** (1830). — We have noticed that Charles X, the last of the Bourbon kings of France, refused to bow to the will of the people after the elections of 1830 (sec. 443). In July he issued ordinances dissolving the new Chamber of Deputies before it met, and so changing the election laws as to favor his own party in future elections. He also greatly curbed the liberty of the press. Charles had declared that he would prefer to saw wood rather than to be a king without power like the king of England — and it was not long before he had plenty of time to saw wood.

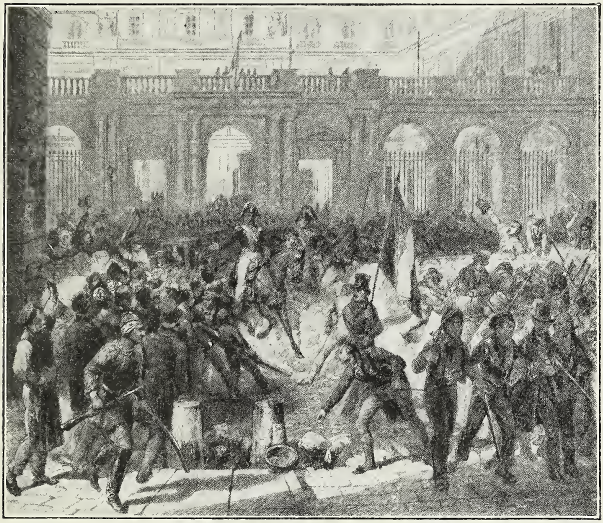
These July ordinances of Charles X made a profound sensation in Paris. Old soldiers, students, and laborers joined in resisting the high-handed measures of the king. They armed themselves, erected barriers of cobblestones in the streets, and determined to resist the king's forces. The aged Lafayette now rendered his last service to his country, taking charge of the revolutionists. For several days there was fighting in the streets.

When the king learned that the riot was growing into a revolution he withdrew the despised ordinances. The insurgents paid no heed. They captured one after another of the public buildings, and the frightened king, remembering the fate of his brother forty years before, fled the country and found refuge in England, where he spent the remainder of his life.

470. **Accession of Louis Philippe.** — Most of the street fighters were republicans and would gladly have restored the conditions of 1793, but they were not voters and had little influence with

the government. The middle class, many of whom were men of wealth and were voters, did not favor setting up a republic; they were liberal royalists and their eyes turned toward Louis Philippe (fē-lēp′), head of the House of Orleans.

Though Louis Philippe had lived many years in exile, he had as a youth fought in the people's cause at the time of the first Revolution. He was a descendant of the early Bourbons, but had always been regarded as a liberal. Charles X had attempted to leave the throne to his little grandson, who would have become Henry V, but the Chambers by a vote of nearly seven to one declared the throne vacant and then proclaimed Louis Philippe king of the French.



ENTRY OF LOUIS PHILIPPE INTO PARIS, JULY 30, 1830

Engraved from a contemporary painting by Vernet. The street fighters had thrown up barricades made of paving blocks, as was customary in Paris riots.

One significant change in the theory of the government must be noted. It will be remembered that Louis XVIII in assuming the throne in 1815 retained the theory of divine right and out of the generosity of his heart he gave the people whatever liberties they enjoyed. Louis Philippe, on the other hand, accepted the crown from the people, made no pretense of divine right, and confessed himself the servant and not the master. Within the fifteen years since 1815 the sovereignty of the nation had in theory at least passed from the king to the people of France. Thiers (tyâr), one of the rising young statesmen of the time, said: "It is from the French people that he will hold his crown."

471. The Revolution of 1830 in Other Lands. — The people of the rest of Europe were awake to the movements in France in 1830. When they saw that the French could so readily replace a tyrannical monarch with a liberal one and modify their government in the interests of the people, they were moved to similar action in various countries.

In Great Britain the series of reforms related in the preceding chapter were due in part to the uprising in France. The French cry for more liberty was heard across the Channel and stimulated the English in their demand for reform.

Still greater was the result in Belgium. That country had been joined to Holland at the Congress of Vienna (sec. 435). But the Belgians were bitterly opposed to the union. For fifteen years they bore impatiently the rule of the king of the Netherlands. Then came the July Revolution of 1830 in France. This gave the Belgians the idea of revolt, and in less than a month their cry was, "Let us do as the French have done." A revolt started in Brussels soon extended to all parts of the country. The efforts of the king of the Netherlands first to win and then to force the Belgians back to their allegiance were fruitless. The kingdom of Belgium was founded. A Congress was elected and it adopted a liberal constitution, guaranteeing the two great principles of the French Revolution, equality before the law and the sovereignty of the people. The next year, 1831, Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (a German state), uncle of Victoria of England, was selected king of Belgium. The great powers recognized the new nation and guaranteed its neutrality.

In Switzerland the people had been agitating for more liberal constitutions in the various cantons. The French Revolution of 1830 greatly stimulated them. Eleven of the most populous cantons yielded to their demands.

In Italy a similar uprising was put down by an Austrian army under the influence of Metternich.

In the German states, still under the spell of Metternich, the results of the movement were slight.

In the kingdom of Poland (sec. 435) the result was opposite that in France and Belgium. The Poles of that land had been granted a constitution by their king the tsar of Russia, but they wanted independence. Influenced by the French and the Belgians, they made a dash for liberty, but were crushed by the Russian armies, and even the liberty they had was taken from them. Their country was incorporated in the Russian Empire.[1]

II. The Revolution of 1848 in France

472. Government of Louis Philippe (1830–1848). — The Duke of Orleans, borne into his great office as king of France on the revolutionary wave of 1830, called himself the "citizen king." He was also called the "King of the Barricades," in allusion to the street fights that won him his power. He sent his sons to the public schools; he walked the streets unguarded, in citizens' garb, carrying an umbrella. By his democratic ways he hoped to win public favor; but his reign was never popular.

There were three political parties in France: first, the supporters of the king, often called the Orleanists, composed of the well-to-do middle class; second, the party that favored the old

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[1] The Poland here referred to was only part of the Polish provinces originally seized by Prussia and Austria in the partitions of Poland (sec. 366). Other Polish provinces remained to those countries, and still others had already been incorporated with Russia.

Bourbon dynasty, called the "Legitimists," because they contended that the Bourbons were the legitimate heirs to the crown: third, the Republicans, composed chiefly of the non-voting working classes and their sympathizers.

The Legitimists raised an insurrection in favor of the little grandson of Charles X, but it was soon put down and the party gave little trouble thereafter. The Republicans on the other hand continued an active opposition throughout the reign. The last revolution had done little for the industrial class. Great factories were built and the towns increased rapidly in population. But the workingmen had no vote. There were but 200,000 voters in a population of 30,000,000. It was a government of the rich.

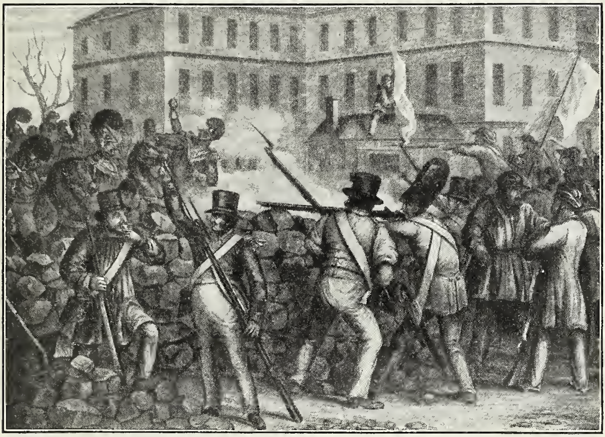
The Chambers, made up of the middle class, some of whom were capitalist owners of the factories, refused to heed the cry of the workers for shorter hours, better pay, and more sanitary conditions. On the other hand they passed repressive laws. Liberty of the press was forbidden, and one Republican paper was prosecuted one hundred and eleven times within four years. But the Republicans would not be subdued. Six times they attempted to assassinate the king and twice they rose in insurrection, but without success.

473. **Guizot and Thiers.** — The two leading French statesmen of the period were Guizot (gē-zō′) and Thiers, both also noted historians. Both were destined to live through several revolutionary changes in the French government, and one of them, as we shall see in a later chapter, was to rise to the highest position in the gift of his country.

Guizot, a young professor of history in the University of France, was called to public service by Louis XVIII, under whom he filled high office. Disagreeing with Charles X, he retired from public life, but reëntered it on the accession of Louis Philippe. Though a sincere man, he could not agree that the working classes should have a voice in the government, and he resisted their clamor for the ballot.

Thiers was a Liberal; he sympathized with the working classes.

He believed that the people should be sovereign and that the king should be their servant, not their master. He was the author of the famous saying, "The king reigns but does not govern." He and Guizot were in turn at the head of the Cabinet of Louis Philippe. The king, however, was more in sympathy with Guizot, and from 1840 to the end of the reign Guizot remained premier, Thiers leading the opposition.



Defending the Street Barricades in 1848

From a contemporary print.

474. The Third French Revolution (1848). — The Guizot ministry retained a majority in the Chambers, but the great masses of the people were in a state of discontent. The opposition was divided into factions that differed among themselves, but in one thing they were united — in their demand for an extension of the ballot.

During the year 1847 a series of banquets were held in many parts of the country, the chief purpose of which was to advocate reform. The greatest of all these banquets was arranged to be held in Paris on February 22, 1848, but the government forbade the meeting and also the street procession that was to precede it.

This act of the government proved to be the spark that lit the flame. It brought the Revolution of 1848. The people began to gather in the streets in riotous mood. They looted the gun-shops and armed themselves. They threw up barricades and prepared for a contest. The government sounded a call to arms; the national guards were sent against the rioters, but the guards, refusing to fire on the people, ran among them and joined in their shout, "Hurrah for reform. Down with Guizot!" The king lost courage and agreed to dismiss Guizot. The crowd was for a time appeased and it seemed that the revolution was over.

But the radicals were not content. Nothing but the overthrow of the monarchy would satisfy them. An incident occurred on the evening of February 23 that gave them the desired leverage. A band of soldiers in self-defense fired on a mob and killed a few people. The bodies of the dead were then loaded on carts and dragged through the streets to prove to all that the government had fired on the people. For hours the mob shouted through the streets, "Down with Royalty" and "Long live the Republic."

Louis Philippe saw that his career was ended. He abdicated the throne in favor of his infant grandson, the Count of Paris. But the people were clamoring for the abolition of the monarchy. A republic was proclaimed by the insurgents (February 24, 1848). The king, like Charles X, escaped into England, where two years later he died.

475. Louis Blanc and the Socialists. — With the overthrow of the monarchy the Republicans elected an assembly of 900 members, by universal suffrage. But the Republicans were sharply divided into two parties. The majority were content with setting up a republic with universal suffrage; but a strong minority wanted a social revolution for the betterment of the working classes. This party was led by Louis Blanc (blän), a brilliant editor, and, like Guizot and Thiers, a historian. His party came to be called Socialist.

The Socialists had control of the government for a short time. They demanded that it employ all unemployed men, and soon they had 100,000 men working on fortifications. But when this work was completed the men were idle. The Socialists then sought to establish permanent national workshops, and indeed, to take the industries of the whole country out of the hands of private capitalists and turn them over to the government.

One of the cardinal doctrines of Socialism, which has been advocated by a party in many countries since then, is that government ownership of the factories, mines, and railroads would bring relief to the laboring classes, lift them out of their poverty, and modify their hard conditions.

The French Socialists at this time, being in a minority, soon lost control of affairs. Thereupon they sought by another revolution to overthrow the new government and install a reign of Socialism. The result was the bloodiest street battle ever seen in France, often called "The Four Days in June." It required four days for the government forces to subdue the Socialists. Thousands were slain in the streets and great numbers who were taken captive were shot or transported to the provinces. The Socialist party was for a time broken up. Louis Blanc, though not the instigator of the insurrection, left the country and went to England, where he lived for twenty years, spending much of his time writing a history of the French Revolution.

476. The Presidential Election. — The assembly that had been elected drew up a constitution which provided for a democratic republic and was based on the two great principles of the Revolution of 1789 — that all men were equal before the law and that all power emanates from the people. It was decided that there should be an Assembly or Congress of one house, of 750 members, and a President to be elected for four years, by popular vote.

In the matter of electing a president the assembly that made the constitution was warned to disqualify all members of the former reigning families, but it refused because "a law against one man was unworthy of a great assembly." This " one man " was Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, son of Louis Bonaparte who had been king of Holland, a brother of the great Emperor Napoleon. The only son of Napoleon had died, and the nephew, Louis Napoleon, was now the heir to all the family claims. He was an ambitious man and twice within the past few years he had attempted to seize the government. For this reason he was considered a dangerous man, and yet the assembly refused to disqualify him for president.

Louis Napoleon came out boldly as a candidate and his name gave him a great advantage over other candidates. The ignorant peasants knew little of the statesmen of the time, but all knew well the magic name of the great Napoleon whose picture hung in many of their cabins. Thousands of the veterans of the Napoleonic wars still survived, and they were never weary of telling over and over the stories of the glorious victories of Austerlitz, of Jena, and of Wagram, which they had won under the banners of Napoleon. The name of the mighty leader was known in every home in France, and when that name, borne by his nephew, was presented on the ballot for president, there were few who made any other choice. On December 10, 1848, Louis Napoleon was elected president of France by a majority of more than three million votes. Thus the people invited the overthrow of their new-born republic.

477. **Louis Napoleon and his Coup d'État.** — That the new French president was not sincere in his pretended support of the republic was soon made evident. The constitution provided that the president could not succeed himself in the great office. Napoleon sought to have this changed so as to permit a reëlection at the end of the four years. But the necessary two thirds majority in the Assembly he could not secure. He thereupon decided upon a bold stroke, nothing less than a seizing of the government by force, similar to the act of Napoleon I in 1799 (sec. 416). Such an act is called in the French language a *coup d'état* (kōō dā-tá').

From the time of his election as president, Napoleon traveled about the country trading on the name and fame of his illustrious uncle. "The name Napoleon," he declared, "is of itself a program signifying order, authority, religion, and the prosperity of the people." He was hailed by the thoughtless crowds with shouts of approval — "Long live Napoleon," and even "Long live the Emperor."

Napoleon laid his plans well. In this one respect, in the power of intrigue, if in nothing else, he showed traces of genius.

Even the time chosen for the coup d'état (December 2, 1851) was meant to play upon public opinion. It was the anniversary of the crowning of Napoleon I as emperor in 1804 and of the battle of Austerlitz in 1805. The important offices of the army were put in the hands of the tools and henchmen of the usurper. On the preceding night the leading men of the opposition were arrested in their homes and thrown into prison. The people of Paris were amazed next morning at the sight of placards posted over the city announcing the setting up of a new government with Napoleon in complete control. The Assembly was dispersed by armed men, many of its members being sent to prison. The feeble resistance by the radicals during the next few days was quickly suppressed; and their leaders were shot down or sent into exile.

478. The Second Empire. — "Napoleon the Little," as Victor Hugo dubbed him, thus gained complete control of France. He framed a new constitution making himself president for ten years with almost unlimited power. He flattered the people by restoring universal suffrage, and in the election that followed they approved his act of usurpation by a very large majority.

This was the first step. The second followed a year later when the usurper took the title as well as the power of a monarch. On December 2, 1852, he was crowned as Napoleon III, Emperor of the French.[1] This action also was ratified in a popular vote,

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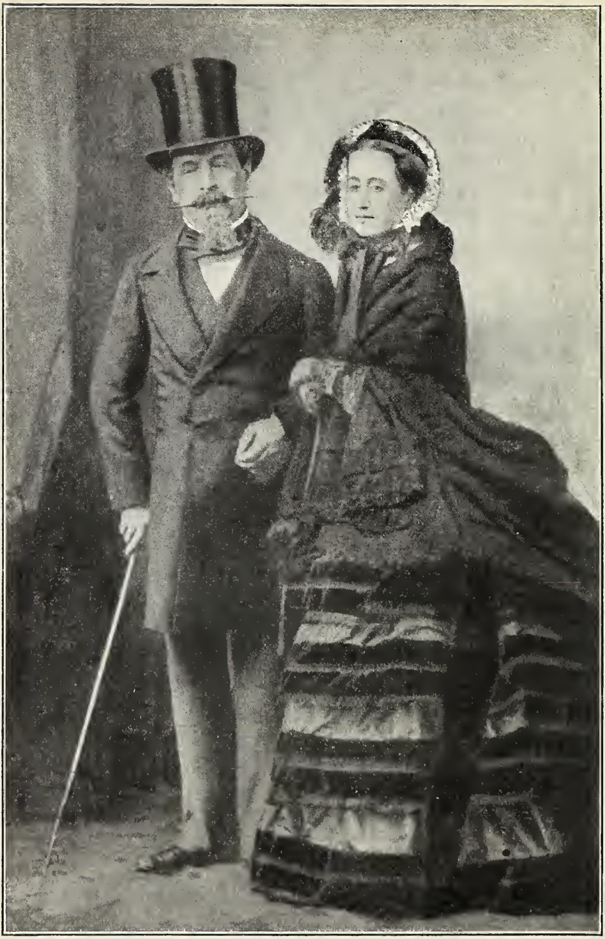
[1] By a fiction similar to that of Louis XVII, the son of Napoleon I, who died in 1832, was regarded as Napoleon II.



Napoleon III and the Empress Eugénie (û-zhā-nē′)

Photograph taken in the sixties, showing the costume of the period.

by an even greater majority than that of the year before. Thus for a second time the French people, having achieved self-government through a general uprising, permitted it to slip out of their hands.[1]

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848 IN OTHER COUNTRIES

479. General Conditions. — The French Revolution in 1789 had little permanent result on the Continent outside of France. The people were too ignorant after their long feudal servitude to rise and grasp their political rights, as the French had done. The second French Revolution, 1830, found an echo in many sections, though outside of Poland and Belgium the permanent results were not great. But the people were set to thinking; they were becoming better educated and more conscious of their political rights; they were waiting another opportunity. It came with the French revolt of 1848, which convulsed the whole of Central Europe from the Baltic to the Mediterranean.

The great dominant power in Central Europe at this time was Austria, and Austria with its proud Hapsburg House was dominated by Metternich, " the evil genius of Europe for thirty years." After all her humiliating defeats by Napoleon, Austria had risen, on his overthrow, to unprecedented heights of power. When Napoleon destroyed the Holy Roman Empire in 1806, the Austrian monarch took the title of Emperor of Austria. His dominions, from 1815 to 1848 and for many years afterwards, were more extensive than any other European country except Russia. They included not only what we know as Austria, inhabited mainly by Germans, but also Hungary, Bohemia, and extensive Polish, Roumanian, Jugo-Slav, and Italian provinces. And his power extended far beyond his own dominions. He dominated nearly all of Germany and nearly all of Italy, and in every part of these countries the heavy, baleful hand of Metternich was felt.

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[1] The photograph reproduced on the opposite page was made in the early days of photography, when long time exposures were necessary. Though not of royal birth, the empress was a beautiful Spanish girl who so charmed Napoleon that he insisted upon marrying her. Eugénie's grandfather, William Kirkpatrick, was an American citizen. To her influence was due much of the brilliancy of the imperial régime. At the fall of the Second Empire, in 1870, she fled from Paris, aided by an American dentist, Dr. Evans. Eugénie died in 1920, at the age of ninety-four.

Italy for more than a thousand years had been divided into petty states or parceled out among the powers. Not since the fall of the Roman Empire and the invasions of the Goths and the Lombards had Italy enjoyed national unity, except for a few years under Napoleon. In 1848 Venice and Lombardy and various smaller states were Austrian territory; the kingdom of the two Sicilies (or Naples), which included southern Italy and Sicily, was under Austrian influence, and only the Papal States and the kingdom of Sardinia (including Piedmont) were free from the control of the Hapsburgs (map following page 498). In the cynical words of Metternich, Italy was only a "geographical expression." The Italian people, remembering the ancient glory of their land, longed for national unity and for freedom from Austrian oppression.

Conditions in Germany were almost as bad as in Italy. There were many states, almost independent, joined together loosely by the German Confederation, and all subject to the repressive influence of Austria.

The great cry of the people of central Europe was threefold: (1) they wanted a voice in their own government; (2) they would be free from foreign domination; and (3) they sought to make the state one with the race or nation. This third aspiration may need a word of explanation. A nation or race is a people who speak the same language or are of the same descent, as the Germans or the Hungarians. A state is the territory under one government. In Germany there were many states and one race, and the people longed for unity; Austria, on the other hand, was one state with many races, and the tendency was to separation.[1]

480. **The Great Uprising in Austria.** — The shout of liberty from Paris in February, 1848, awakened echoes from a thousand localities in Central Europe. In none was it more significant

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[1] Fyffe's *History of Modern Europe*, Vol. III, p. 3.

than in Vienna, the capital of the Austrian Empire and the hotbed of absolutism. The Austrian Empire was an aggregation of many nationalities. In addition to the Germans of Austria proper there were Hungarians, Bohemians or Czechs, Poles, Roumanians, Serbs, Italians, and several other peoples (map following page 646). There is no "Austrian language." The official tongue was German, the language of Vienna, but ten or more separate peoples in the empire had each its own language.

Early in March, 1848, within a few weeks after the rising in France, Vienna was seething with rebellion. "Down with Metternich," was the cry from the roaring streets, and that famous dignitary was obliged to bow to the storm. He escaped from the city disguised, in a laundry cart, and fled to England. The emperor was thoroughly frightened. He changed his ministry and promised the people a constitution.

In Bohemia and Hungary, in the same month, there were uprisings in which the people demanded not only a more liberal government, but a recognition of their respective nations and languages as distinct from the Germans of Austria. The emperor granted Bohemia a constitution, but soon there was quarreling in that land. A large majority of the people in Bohemia were Bohemians or Czechs, but a strong minority were Germans, and the two races could not agree. The Austrian emperor, who at heart was a despot and hated liberalism, had only been playing for time. He now made the domestic quarrel in Bohemia an excuse to send an army into that country. This army soon crushed out every vestige of Bohemian liberty, then marched upon Vienna, in which another riot had occurred, and, after a fearful bombardment, reduced the city to submission.

481. Francis Joseph; Revolt of Hungary. — Emperor Ferdinand now abdicated his throne in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph, a youth of eighteen years. The new emperor was not embarrassed, like his uncle, with promises to the liberals, and he determined to restore the old despotic conditions.

In Austria and Bohemia the liberals had been put down with a ruthless hand; also in Italy, as we shall see later. Hungary was yet to be dealt with. The Hungarians refused to acknowledge Francis Joseph as their ruler. They set up a republic and chose Louis Kossuth (kŏsh′o͝ot), an eloquent and patriotic leader, president. As they had been granted a separate army as well as a constitution, they were not easy to subdue. Not until a large Russian army came to the aid of Austria were the Hungarians crushed. Kossuth fled to Turkey and later to the United States, and the dream of Hungarian independence passed into the shadows.

482. **Attempted Revolution in Italy.** — The one man who above all others prepared the Italian mind for revolt against Austrian oppression was Mazzini (mät-sē′nē, 1805–1872), a lawyer and journalist of Genoa, a patriot of lofty ideas. Many years he spent in exile and in prison for his love of freedom and his service to his native land. He organized "Young Italy," a revolutionary society, and worked for many years to mold public opinion to his ideals. He lived to see his efforts crowned with success, as will appear in a later chapter; but the revolt in 1848 did not end as he had hoped.

The Italian rebellion against tyranny began in Sicily and Naples in January, 1848, even before the revolution in France. The imbecile tyrant on the throne was quickly frightened into granting a constitution. Then came the news of the revolt in France and the flight of the hated Metternich from Vienna. Instantly the whole Italian peninsula was aflame with revolution. Venice and Lombardy expelled the Austrian garrisons and declared for independence. Their oppression had been galling. Austrian spies and secret police were everywhere. Political discussion was forbidden. There was a tax on every bakery and every market. Venice and Lombardy constituted but one eighth of the population of the Austrian Empire, but paid one fourth of the taxes. Calling on the rest of Italy for help, they were joined by Charles Albert, king of Sardinia, who gave his people a free constitution and declared for free Italy, also by Pope Pius IX and other local rulers.

It was a great national uprising for liberty. Everything seemed to promise a speedy release from Austrian tyranny. But the Italians were badly organized. Their armies, except that of Sardinia-Piedmont, were weak and ineffective. A huge Austrian army under a veteran commander came upon the scene and in two battles broke the power of the rebellion and restored the authority of the emperor.

Later when the pope withdrew his sympathy from the liberals the people of the Papal States rose against him, drove him out of Rome, and, under the guidance of Mazzini, set up a Roman Republic. The new republic had no chance to survive, and its life was less than a year. Louis Napoleon, the new president of France, saw his opportunity to curry favor with his Catholic subjects. He sent an army to Rome which soon put down the revolt and restored the pope to his former position. The Italian revolt, like that in Austria, ended in failure; but the seeds of liberty were sown and in another decade were to bring a different harvest.

483. In Germany. — The report that Metternich had fallen caused a wave of rejoicing over Germany, for the Germans also were the victims of his heavy hand. In Berlin the people gathered in great numbers in the streets demanding a share in the government. The troops were ordered to fire on the people, and many were slain. But the king of Prussia, Frederick William IV, did not follow up his victory. He sent the troops from the city and ordered the calling of an assembly to draw up a constitution for Prussia, which was afterward modified by the king. The constitution as put into force was a sham, because the people were given no real control and the king retained most of his absolute power.

Meantime a far wider movement, affecting not Prussia alone but all Germany, was taking place. A call was issued for the electing of a German Parliament by manhood suffrage. The Parliament met in Frankfort in May, 1848, and after long debates it offered a constitution uniting all the German states, including the German part of Austria, into a German Empire, and offered the crown to the king of Prussia (1849). Frederick William refused it because, first, he was at heart a divine-right absolutist and did not wish to accept power from the people, and second, because he was afraid of Austria. The Austrian emperor, having crushed out rebellion in his own dominions, declared in no uncertain terms that there should be no German Empire with a Hohenzollern as its chief, or with any part (that is, the non-German parts) of the Austrian dominions excluded. The king of Prussia, a timid man, bowed to the will of Austria. A reaction set in, and the revolutionary leaders were hunted down by the German princes. Some of them escaped to America. Among them was Carl Schurz (shŏŏrts), who became a prominent figure in American public life.

The Revolution of 1848 brought meager immediate results to Central Europe. It is true that the last vestiges of feudalism were destroyed, and that Prussia gained a constitution which appeared to limit the royal power; but the great prize which the people had hoped to win — liberty and self-government — was denied them. Nevertheless, forces had been set in motion, which within the next twenty-five years were to achieve tremendous results.

Side Talk

Travels of Louis Philippe in America. — Among the many exiles who fled from the terrors of the French Revolution in 1789, was the Duke of Orleans, later King Louis Philippe, whose father had suffered death at the guillotine. After wandering in various European countries, the duke, then a youth of twenty-three, embarked for America, and reached Philadelphia in October, 1796. A few months later he was joined by his two younger brothers.

The three brothers visited President Washington at Mount Vernon, and then started on an extensive tour of the West and South. They traveled on horseback and carried their belongings in saddlebags. Much of the country was wild and uninhabited, and often through the wilderness they picked their way with difficulty. These royal brothers, born amid all the luxury that Europe could offer, endured the hardships of the frontier life and adapted themselves to the rough society of the wilderness. They slept in village taverns, in the crude huts that dotted the wilderness here and there, or wrapped in their blankets under the open sky.

They went by way of Winchester, Virginia, to Knoxville and Nashville in Tennessee, and thence northward to Louisville and Lexington in Kentucky. Crossing the Ohio River, they visited Chillicothe, Lancaster, and Zanesville in Ohio. Next they went to Wheeling, Pittsburgh, and Niagara Falls. After returning to Philadelphia they went again to Pittsburgh and floated in a small boat down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers to New Orleans, whence they sailed to Havana and London.

In a letter written by one of the brothers to their sister in Europe, he says, " We passed fourteen nights in the woods, devoured by all kinds of insects, often wet to the bone, and our only food being pork, a little salt beef, and maize bread. We were forty or fifty nights in miserable huts, where we were obliged to lie upon the floor made of rough timbers. . . . We have seen many Indians. . . . They are in general the best people in the world, except when they are intoxicated or inflamed by passion. They received us with great kindness, and our being Frenchmen contributed not a little to our reception, for they are very fond of our nation."

Questions and Topics. — I. What forced Charles X from the French throne? How did Louis Philippe secure it? What important change in the theory of government had taken place since the accession of Louis XVIII? What can you tell of the Revolution of 1830 in Belgium? What movement took place in Switzerland? in Italy? in Poland?

II. Name the three political parties in France in 1830. What can you tell of Thiers and Guizot? Describe the third French Revolution. Why was the republic now set up called the Second French Republic? Who was Louis Blanc? Who was Louis Napoleon? How did he come to be president? emperor?

III. What was the status of Austria in 1848? of Italy? of Germany? Describe the uprising in each. Why did the people fail in Germany to secure any good results?

Events and Dates. — Second French Revolution, 1830; Third, 1848. Establishing of the Second French Republic, 1848; the Second French Empire, 1852.

For Further Reading. — Seignobos, *Political History of Europe, since 1814.* Fyffe, *History of Modern Europe.* Hassall, *The French People.* Lebon, *Modern France.*

CHAPTER XXXIX

UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY

I. The Making of Modern Italy

484. **The House of Savoy, the Hope of Italy.** — The great uprising in Italy in 1848–1849 and its dismal failure proved two things to the Italian people — that the pope, with his international interests, could not be a successful secular ruler according to modern ideals; and that the hope of Italy was in the House of Savoy, as the royal family of Sardinia-Piedmont was called.

King Charles Albert had resigned the crown to his son, Victor Emman′uel II, and the latter had proved himself true to the cause of liberty. He refused threats and proffered bribes from Austria to betray his people and rob them of the constitution his father had granted them. He had a vision of united Italy, under the crown of his own little kingdom and free from the galling bondage of Austria. The great majority of the Italian people were longing for political freedom from Austria, or from their own tyrannical rulers, and their eyes turned to Victor Emmanuel. The king, a man of moderate ability, was exceedingly fortunate in having as prime minister a man of great capacity who was supremely devoted to the liberation of Italy.

485. **Count Cavour, the Liberator of Italy.** — A younger son of a noble family, Cavour (kȧ-vo͞or′; 1810–1861) entered the army and received no early training in statesmanship. At the time of the Revolution of 1830, though a youth of twenty, his sympathies with liberty were so pronounced that he was considered " dangerous " by his superiors and was transferred to a lonely fortress in the Alps. Disliking so inactive a life, he resigned, returned to his home, and became the manager of his family's ancestral estate. Here we find him at the outbreak of the revolt

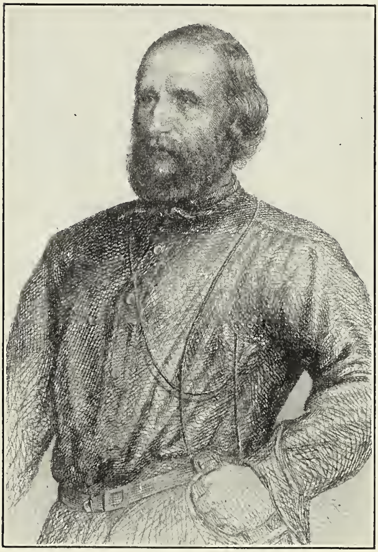
in 1848. He was sent to the legislative chamber of Sardinia-Piedmont, where he began to display his remarkable powers. He attracted the attention of Victor Emmanuel, who saw in him a man of unusual promise and invited him to a seat in the Cabinet. " You will see him turn you all out of your places," said the king to his ministers.

Cavour was not a republican. He desired to see all Italy united, a limited monarchy, under the crown of Savoy, with a liberal constitution. To bring about this end he devoted all his energy, he literally worked himself to death. But he lived to see almost the attainment of the goal of his life-work, the realization of his dream.

Mazzini (sec. 482) was the philosopher and the idealist, Cavour was the statesman and one of the greatest of modern times. In 1852 Cavour became prime minister of Sardinia-Piedmont, and thenceforth he was the soul of the movement for united Italy. The forming of patriotic societies did not appeal to him. He believed that Italy could become great only by establishing industries, building railroads, and improving agriculture, and he did all in his power to foster these things. He believed that his land could be freed only through an established government with a strong army.

Many acts of Cavour reveal the farsighted statesman. One of these was his sending an army to join those of France and Great Britain in the Crime'an War (1854–1856). He had little interest in the issues of that war against Russia, the chief result of which was to protect Turkey from Russian aggression. Cavour's object was to gain a place for his country in the councils of the powers. This they could not refuse after accepting his help on the battlefield. The next year, when the treaty settling the questions of the war was made at Paris, Cavour was one of the diplomats present, and he was the ablest of them all. The regular work finished, Cavour set forth a powerful and vivid picture of the deplorable conditions in Italy and laid the matter upon the conscience of the great powers.

The Austrian ambassador heard it all. Austria took alarm, and before the end of the year she began great reforms in her vicious and tyrannous government of Lombardy and Venice. But it was too late. The great Italian statesman had determined that Italy should be free.



GARIBALDI, IN 1860

From a contemporary drawing. Between 1849 and 1859 he spent several years in New York, engaged in commerce.

486. Garibaldi and the War for Italian Liberty. — It has been said that Mazzini was the philosopher of Italian liberty, Cavour was the statesman, and Garibaldi (gä-re-bäl′dē) was the soldier. In the revolt of 1848 Garibaldi was one of the leading figures. As a commander he was inspiring and brave, but he was rash and reckless, and a steadier hand was needed to restrain him.

Cavour fully realized that the only hope of Italian success against Austria lay in the aid of one of the great powers, and with unwearied effort he won over Louis Napoleon, the late president, now emperor of France.

A *casus belli* was soon found. Victor Emmanuel marshaled his troops, Garibaldi was ready with an intrepid band, and a French army poured across the mountains. At Magenta (ma-jĕn′ta; map, p. 551) came the first clash. The Austrians were defeated. Three weeks later at Solferino (sŏl-fĕ-rē′nō) the decisive battle was fought (June 24, 1859). Three hundred thousand men were engaged. The French-Italian allies won a brilliant victory, and Lombardy was theirs.

All Italy was now afire with enthusiasm. But to the astonishment of all, the French and Austrian emperors met at Villafranca (vēl-lä-fräng′kä) and agreed to terms of peace. Lombardy was to be given up, but Venice was to be retained by Austria. The supposed cause of Napoleon III's action in thus leaving his allies in the lurch was that he feared an attack by Prussia from the north. Cavour, Victor Emmanuel, and the Italian people were deeply chagrined, but they could do nothing but accept the inevitable. They could not continue the war without France.

487. **Acquisition of Central and Southern Italy.** — In the war with Austria, the Italians had won a great prize — Lombardy. A notable step had been taken toward the liberating and uniting of Italy. Then came another surprise of a different sort. The people of Tuscany and other central states of Italy drove out their tyrant rulers and declared for union with Sardinia-Piedmont. Cavour made terms with France, ceded to that country two little provinces, Nice and Savoy, and accepted the great accession to his country (March, 1860). Nearly all central and northern Italy, except Venice, was now united under Victor Emmanuel.

The next great step in the unifying of Italy was taken by Garibaldi. With a force of a thousand red-shirted men he sailed for Sicily. The people of the island, weary of their contemptible government, received him with open arms. Next he crossed to the mainland and proceeded to Naples. The king, deserted by his own people, fled from the city, and Garibaldi was master of all southern Italy. Meantime Cavour sent an army to occupy the Papal States, — excepting Rome and the surrounding district, — and these, together with Naples and Sicily, in the autumn of 1860, were joined to the dominions of the House of Savoy.

The great work of Cavour was finished. He lived to see the heavy hand of the oppressor removed from nearly all of his native land. He had worn out his life in the cause, and in the spring of 1861 the world was called to mourn the untimely death of the Liberator of Italy.

488. Acquisition of Venice and Rome. — By anticipating a little we may here note the later fortunes of Italy, down to the outbreak of the World War in 1914.

The great work of Cavour finished, nearly the whole country was united under one flag, except Venice, still under the control of Austria, and Rome, still held for the pope by the French army that had been stationed there in 1849.

Then came the Seven Weeks' War in 1866, between Austria and Prussia. Italy joined with Prussia, against Austria, her sole object being to secure Venice. The Italians engaged the attention of one Austrian army, and the speedy defeat of another by the Prussians at Sadowa (sä′dō̤-vä) brought the desired result. Austria handed Venice over to Napoleon, who had been made arbiter, and Napoleon in turn offered to pass it over to Italy in case the Venetians expressed a desire to join Italy. They did so in an election by an almost unanimous vote.[1]

A few years later, during a hard-fought war between France and Prussia (1870), the emperor of France withdrew his army from Rome. The Italian army occupied the city without a battle. The people voted a hundred to one in favor of joining United Italy. Rome was made the capital of the young nation, and the banners of the House of Savoy waved over the entire peninsula.

Pope Pius IX retained only the Vatican Palace and grounds, enjoying the dignity of a sovereign, and not subject to the Italian king. He and several of his successors refused to give up their claim to the Papal States, refused also to accept the large annuity voted by the Parliament, and remained voluntary prisoners within the Vatican grounds. The deadlock continued until 1929, when the pope and the Italian government under Premier Mussolini

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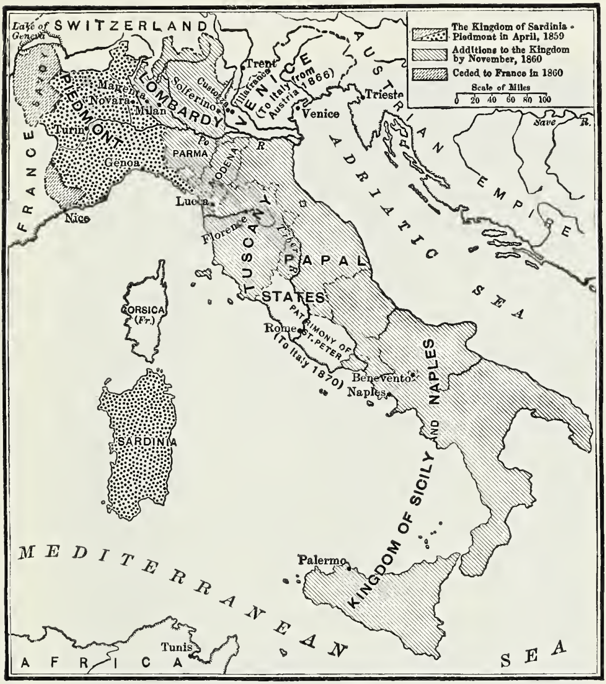
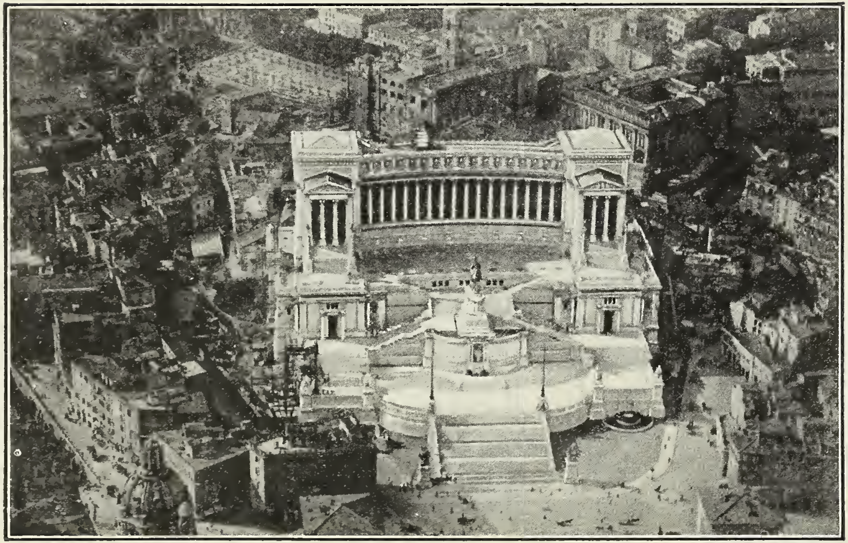
[1] On the frontiers of Venice, however, Austria still held two districts peopled mainly by Italians; namely, the regions including Trent and Trieste (trē̆-ĕst′), which were not acquired by Italy until 1918.


The Kingdom of Sardinia - Piedmont in April, 1859
Additions to the Kingdom by November, 1860
Ceded to France in 1860
Scale of Miles
0 20 40 60 80 100
Lake of Geneva
SWITZERLAND
SAVOY
PIEDMONT
Magenta
Novara
Milan
Turin
Genoa
LOMBARDY
Solferino
Custozza
Villafranca
Trent
VENICE
(To Italy from Austria 1866)
Venice
Trieste
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
Save R.
Po R.
PARMA
MODENA
Lucca
Nice
FRANCE
Florence
TUSCANY
Tiber R.
PAPAL STATES
ADRIATIC SEA
CORSICA (Fr.)
Rome
PATRIMONY OF ST. PETER (To Italy 1870)
Benevento
Naples
KINGDOM OF SICILY AND NAPLES
SARDINIA
Palermo
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
Tunis

UNIFICATION OF ITALY

made a treaty by which all friction was removed. This agreement recognized a sphere of church law in Italy, slightly enlarged the Vatican grounds, or "the City of the Vatican," granted the pope a large sum of money, and confirmed his absolute independence.

489. Italy after 1870. — The new government of Italy was a limited monarchy with a liberal constitution. The king appointed his ministers, but they were responsible to Parliament, the lower house of which was elected by the people.



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Monument to Victor Emmanuel II, in Rome

An airplane view. The open space near the top of the picture is part of the old Roman Forum (p. 202).

The great burden of Italians for more than half a century has been a crushing debt. Little coal or iron is found in Italy, and few other minerals. Agriculture, the chief industry, is in a backward condition, especially in the southern part. In spite of the poverty of the people they were, until the World War of 1914, taxed more heavily than any other people in Europe. One fourth of the national income was required to pay the interest on the public debt, and a large portion of the remainder to support the army and navy. Italy maintained an army and a navy out of proportion to her wealth. But with all these handicaps much progress was made. State railroads were built, marshes drained, and a public school system was established.[1] In 1860 three fourths of the people were illiterate; fifty years later, only about half.

Great numbers of Italians left their country, owing to the excessive taxation, and migrated to the United States or to South America. In the hope of keeping such emigrants nearer home the government deemed it important to acquire dependencies in North Africa. With her eye on Tunis Italy was displeased by the extension of French control over that country in 1881, and was therefore led to join the Triple Alliance (sec. 506).

In 1911 Italy determined to occupy Tripoli (trĭp′o-lĭ), a possession of Turkey, on the pretext of misgovernment of that country. Though weakened at that moment by recent internal troubles, Turkey refused her consent and war followed. Prevented by the Italian fleet, Turkey was unable to send large forces to Tripoli. After a desultory struggle for a year, Turkey, about to engage in the Balkan War (sec. 546) gave up and ceded Tripoli to Italy. Italy thereupon restored the ancient name of Lib′ia (or Libya) to the conquered province. The question whether Italian emigrants would continue to go to other lands as before or would instead settle in Libia in large numbers, was not yet settled when the World War put a stop to nearly all emigration.

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[1] A great memorial was erected to the king under whom the unification of Italy was brought about (see opposite page). It stands at the head of the Corso, Rome's principal street. It was twenty-five years in building and cost twelve million dollars.

II. UNIFYING OF GERMANY; WAR WITH FRANCE

490. Germany after the Rising in 1848. — The wave of liberal agitation that swept over Europe in 1848 left Germany divided into many states in spite of the faithful efforts of the Frankfort Parliament (sec. 483). For hundreds of years Austria had been the dominating state of Germany, and Austria determined to continue its leadership and to prevent a unifying of the states. The eyes of the rest of Germany thereupon turned hopefully toward Prussia. If there was to be German unity Prussia would have to take the lead in bringing it about, and the first thing to be done was to cast out Austria and her polyglot possessions from the German family.

King Frederick William IV died in 1861, and his brother William, a man of sixty-three, succeeded to the Prussian throne. A year later he called Otto von Bismarck to be his chief minister. Bismarck was a masterful man, a born aristocrat, without a drop of democratic blood in his veins. He resembled Metternich in his belief in the divine right of kings, but in the aim and achievement of his career he must be compared with Cavour.

The great goal of Bismarck's life was to exclude Austria from Germany and to unite the other states under the leadership of Prussia. He believed the only possible means to accomplish this was by war, and for years he wrestled with a reluctant Diet to bring Prussia to a military footing. In a speech to the Diet he declared that the unity of Germany could be achieved " not by speeches, nor by votes of majorities, but by blood and iron."

491. Bismarck and the Seven Weeks' War. — How to get a quarrel with Austria was a puzzle for Bismarck to solve. The solution came soon after a short conflict with Denmark, in which Austria and Prussia seized some territory; for they quarreled over the spoils. Bismarck had deftly made an alliance with Italy by which that country was to attack Austria on the south and to receive Venice as a reward (sec. 488). When Austria discovered that war was inevitable she offered Venice to Italy free if the latter would stay out of the war. The temptation was great, but as a matter of honor Italy could not violate her pledged word.

The war lasted seven weeks in the summer of 1866. Prussia had the great advantage of a thoroughly trained army, an able war minister, a great strategist in von Moltke (fōn mōlt′ke), and a Bismarck towering above all. There was but one great battle — Sadowa, in Bohemia. It was fought on July 3. The Austrian army of 200,000 men, overwhelmed and thrown into disorder, left 18,000 men dead and wounded on the field.

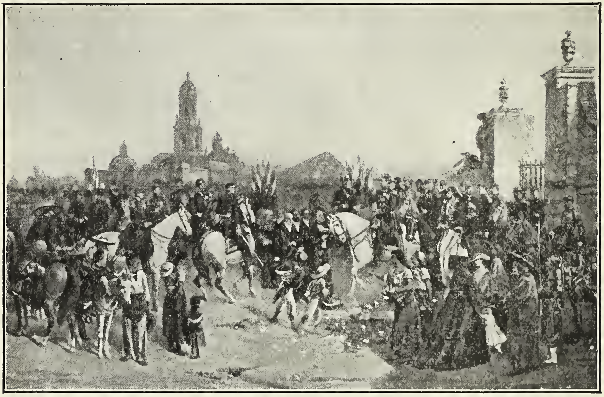
From this blow Austria could not recover. She agreed to terms of peace dictated by Bismarck. Besides giving up Venice to Italy, she consented to keep her hands off German affairs in future and to raise no objection to the reorganization of Germany. Austria was not required to cede any territory to Prussia, but her ally Hanover in Northern Germany was, with other German lands, annexed outright to Prussia.

The North German Confederation was then formed under the leadership of Prussia. It did not include the southern states, Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden, and Hesse (hĕs), which had fought on the side of Austria in the war; but Bismarck made with them secret treaties of alliance, looking to the next war.

In 1867 the Austrian emperor was crowned king of Hungary, and his empire was reorganized as a dual monarchy — the empire of Austria and kingdom of Hungary, each of these states being nearly independent, except in war and foreign affairs.

492. Louis Napoleon and his Tottering Throne. — The emperor Napoleon III was very popular for some years after the establishing of the Second Empire. Though a man of moderate ability, he was not wholly selfish, he was devoted to the country's welfare, and he did everything in his power to enhance its prosperity. In this period many schools and churches were built, roads, canals, and docks were constructed, commerce was multiplied, and cities were improved and beautified as never before.

But public opinion in Europe at this time demanded military glory in a ruler as well as prosperity at home. Napoleon was keenly conscious of this, and he well knew that, having usurped and not having inherited his exalted position, he must on occasion do some brilliant thing in order to retain the allegiance of his people. It was on this account in part that he had engaged in the Crimean War in 1854, and in the War of Italian Liberation a few years later. It was almost wholly on this account that he embarked in an ill-starred expedition to set up an empire in Mexico.



Entry of the French Army into Mexico in 1863

The Mexican venture proved a dismal failure and greatly impaired the prestige of Napoleon in Europe. The unhappy Mexican emperor, a brother of the emperor of Austria, was overthrown and shot by the Mexican republicans, and the misfortune was laid at the door of Napoleon.

Then came the crushing victory of Prussia over Austria at Sadowa. This was looked upon as a blow to France, because, according to the theory of the balance of power, no great nation should be greatly strengthened without a corresponding strengthening of its rivals. By this war Prussia had suddenly leaped into first place as the strongest power in Central Europe. It had annexed much territory, had disabled its great rival on the south, and had formed a strong confederation.

France had won nothing. Napoleon could make no demands. His best troops were in Mexico. His people were chagrined at the situation and ready to hold him responsible. He knew that the glory of his name was fading, and he felt the tottering of his throne. In this dilemma he looked about to see how he might do something or get something in order to compensate France for the great gains Prussia had made. He sought to secure some territory on the left bank of the Rhine, or to conquer and annex Belgium, but in each instance he was thwarted by Bismarck. Why? Because the Prussian minister wanted a war with France.

493. Cause of the Franco-Prussian War (1870). — Bismarck made the unifying of Germany the goal of his life. A great step had been taken in the defeat of Austria. But he saw that France, offended at what had already been done, would not sit quietly by while a strong and aggressive empire was molded into being on her eastern frontier. Therefore he considered it necessary to strike France down and render her unable to interfere. The occasion came from an unexpected quarter.

The Spanish throne was vacant, the unpopular queen, Isabella II, having been driven out in 1868. The Spaniards were looking for a sovereign and they offered the crown to Leopold, a German prince distantly related to the Hohenzollern House of Prussia. He could not accept without the consent of the head of the house, the king of Prussia, and had he accepted, Prussia and Spain would have been ruled by the same family. France could endure no such union of two rival powers, and she made it known that an acceptance by Prince Leopold would mean immediate war. King William of Prussia, approached on the subject by the French minister, disclaimed all responsibility. Meantime Leopold declined the proffered crown of Spain.

The French ambassador then asked King William to promise that he would not permit his relative ever to become again a candidate for the Spanish throne. The king politely refused (July 13, 1870); but the account of this interview, as given to the press by Bismarck, was garbled to make it appear more serious than it was, so that it would inflame the people in both countries. In Berlin and in Paris the people flared up for war. Before the end of July both countries had great armies in the field ready to leap at each other's throats.

494. **Preparedness.** — The contrast between the belligerents of this war in the matter of preparedness was most striking. Prussia was prepared to the last degree. Von Moltke had studied the ground over which the armies were to travel until he knew it almost foot by foot. The news of the French declaration of war (July 19, 1870) reached Berlin late at night. Von Moltke had retired and when an officer came into his room asking for directions it is said he merely pointed to his desk, saying, "You will find all instructions there in a drawer." The German war machine was the most nearly perfect and the most formidable ever known in history. The armies were mobilized with marvelous rapidity and with the regularity of clockwork, and within a few days they were pouring like a torrent into the valley of the Rhine.

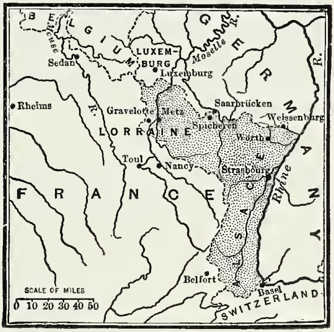
On the other hand, the unreadiness of France was equally astonishing. A lamentable lack of discipline was soon apparent. The army was disorganized and was wanting in munitions and supplies. It fell far below the Prussian army in numbers and equaled it only in valor.

Moreover, Napoleon had expected the aid of the South German states, which had fought against Prussia only four years ago, but Bismarck had secretly secured their alliance. France was overconfident. For three hundred years she had been the dominant nation on the Continent and had not in that time been defeated by any single nation. Recklessly and blindly she plunged into this war that was to dethrone her emperor and revolutionize her government.

495. **Sedan and the Siege of Paris.** — "On to Berlin" was the cry of the French armies as they marched to the frontier. A few weeks later they were struggling for existence in the grasp of their powerful antagonists.

In several bloody frontier engagements ending in the battle of Gravelotte (gräv-lŏt′, August 18) the Germans were victorious. A large French army then took refuge in the great fortress of Metz, which was soon surrounded by the German legions. Another French army, under Marshal MacMahon (mȧk-mȧ-ôɴ′), was engaged by the Germans at Sedan′, and there on September 1 one of the "decisive battles of the world" was fought. The French were utterly overthrown, and next day the entire French army of 100,000 men, including the Emperor Napoleon III, was surrendered to the enemy.

The only French army remaining was now shut up in Metz. The Germans, leaving a strong force to guard it, marched upon Paris 200,000 strong. The French metropolis stood a siege of a little more than four months, communication with the outside world being kept up by means of balloons and carrier pigeons. The fortress of Metz with its 170,000 men was surrendered to the Germans on October 27 by its weak and disloyal commander. Meantime Gambet′ta, one of the ablest leaders in Paris, escaped from the city in a balloon and with incredible energy organized new armies in the hope of raising the siege. But they proved no match for the veteran armies of the enemy.


BELGIUM
Meuse
Sedan
LUXEMBURG
Luxemburg
GERMANY
Moselle R.
R.
Rheims
R.
Gravelotte
Metz
Saarbrücken
Weissenburg
Spicheren
LORRAINE
Wörth
Toul
Nancy
Strasbourg
Rhine
FRANCE
ALSACE
Belfort
Basel
SWITZERLAND
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 30 40 50

Franco-Prussian War

Territory lost to France at the close of the war is shaded.

Nothing could save the proud city from starvation or surrender. Like the coils of an anaconda the bands of the besieging armies were tightening around the doomed capital. The Parisians were almost starving when, on the 28th of January, 1871, the city capitulated. The war was over.

By the terms of peace the French were required (1) to cede to Prussia, Alsace and part of Lorraine, including the city of Strasbourg (sträz-bōōr′) and the great fortress of Metz; (2) to pay a war indemnity of one billion dollars, a German army to remain on French soil until payment should be made. A German army marched into Paris and camped there two days until France had ratified the treaty.

496. Birth of a Nation. — The German Empire of 1871–1918 was born on French soil. It was at the time of the siege of Paris by the German armies, in a moment of glowing patriotic enthusiasm, that the German monarchs decided to join their fortunes and form a strong central government. For many centuries the German states had been apart. Every effort at union had failed or had been only partly successful. But now, at the psychological moment, when the German states were rejoicing in their common victory over France, they felt their kinship as never before, and they did what the ancient Greeks could never do. They formed an empire with a solid central government, thus realizing the dream of patriotic Germans for generations.

It was the masterful diplomacy of Bismarck that induced the reluctant states to surrender their independence. On January 18, 1871, in the French palace at Versailles, the empire was proclaimed, with the king of Prussia as hereditary emperor.

SIDE TALK

The Altered Telegram. — The telegram from Ems, describing the interview of the French ambassador (Benedetti) with the Prussian king, reached Bismarck when he was at dinner with Moltke and Roon. "As I read it to them," said Bismarck later, "they were both actually terrified, and Moltke's whole being suddenly changed. He seemed to be quite old and infirm. It looked as if our most gracious majesty might knuckle under after all. . . . Seating myself at a small table, I boiled down those two hundred words to about twenty, but without otherwise altering or adding anything. It was the same telegram, yet something different — shorter, more determined, less dubious. I then handed it over to them, and asked, 'Well, how does that do now?' 'Yes,' they said, 'it will do in that form.' And Moltke immediately became quite young and fresh again. He had got his war, his trade." — Busch, *Bismarck.*

The Dispatch Received by Bismarck. — "Ems, July 13, 1870. His Majesty the King writes me: 'Count Benedetti intercepted me upon the promenade, in order finally to demand of me in a very pressing manner, that I should authorize him to telegraph immediately that I pledged myself for all the future never again to give my consent, if the Hohenzollerns should renew their candidacy. I refused, at length somewhat decidedly, since one neither can nor should take such an engagement *à tout jamais* [absolutely never]. I of course told him I had not yet received any word, and, since he was earlier informed about Paris and Madrid than I, he could easily see that my government was again out of the game.'

"His Majesty has since received a message from the prince. As His Majesty said to Count Benedetti that he was expecting news from the prince, His Highness, with reference to the above-mentioned demand, upon the suggestion of Count Eulenberg, and myself, has determined not to receive Count Benedetti again, but only to have him told through an adjutant: That His Majesty has now received from the Prince confirmation of the news which Benedetti already had from Paris and has nothing further to say to the ambassador.

"His Majesty leaves with your excellency whether the new demand of Benedetti and its immediate rejection should not be communicated to our ministers and to the press. — [signed] ABEKEN."

The Dispatch as Published. — "Ems, July 13, 1870. After the news of the renunciation of the Hereditary Prince of Hohenzollern had been officially communicated to the French imperial government by the royal Spanish [government], the French ambassador again presented a demand to His Majesty at Ems that he should be authorized to telegraph to Paris that His Majesty the King pledges himself for all the future never again to give his consent if the Hohenzollerns should resume their candidacy. His Majesty the King thereupon refused to receive the French minister and had him told through the service-adjutant that His Majesty has nothing further to communicate to the French minister."

Questions and Topics. — I. Give an account of the House of Savoy. Tell about the early life of Cavour. Why did Cavour send an army to the Crimean War? Who was Mazzini? Garibaldi? Give the story of the war with Austria. Why did France make peace with Austria without the consent of Cavour? How did Italy acquire Venice from Austria? How did she acquire Rome? What sort of government has Italy? How does Italy get her supply of coal and iron? Is a limited monarchy better in any respect than a republic? Why? What special reason had Italy for acquiring Tripoli?

II. What was the great aim of Bismarck? Why did he wish to cast Austria out of Germany? What was the cause of the growing unpopularity of Napoleon III? What occasioned the Franco-Prussian quarrel in 1870? Which of the two nations was the better prepared? Should a nation at all times be prepared for war? Why? Give an account of the forming of the German Empire.

Events and Dates. — Under Cavour's leadership, nearly all Italy except Venice and Rome became united in 1860. Venice was acquired in 1866 and Rome in 1870. Franco-Prussian War, 1870–1871. Under the leadership of Bismarck the German Empire was formed in 1871.

For Further Reading. — Phillips, *Modern Europe.* Andrews, *Historical Development of Modern Europe.* Monroe Smith, *Bismarck and German Unity.*

CHAPTER XL

FRANCE AFTER 1870

I. THE THIRD FRENCH REPUBLIC

497. **Fall of the Second Empire; Civil War.** — Nothing but success in the war with Prussia could have saved the tottering throne of Louis Napoleon. This he could not win. He lost not only the battles but also his liberty and his empire. Two days after the taking of the emperor at Sedan the people of Paris in wild disorder proclaimed an end of the empire and the establishing of a republic.

On the coming of peace with Germany, France passed through one of the most terrible crises in her eventful history, equaling if not surpassing the Reign of Terror in 1794 (sec. 406). A radical party in Paris set up a government called the Commune, which opposed the regular Assembly, recently elected by the people of France. The Commune gained control of Paris. It waved the red flag and preached wild notions of abolishing religion and marriage. Its war against the regular troops began on March 18, 1871, and for two months the streets of the city were drenched in blood. No fiercer civil war is recorded in history. At length the government troops gained the mastery. The insurgents, who had wantonly burned several public buildings, including the Palace of the Tuileries, and had murdered their captives, were hunted down with a relentless hand. At least ten thousand of them had been killed in the streets and now other thousands, when captured, were shot down or sent into life-long exile.

A new dawn was about to break on this unhappy land. Though doubly wounded by the German war and by this frightful civil strife, France quickly began to recover and to look forward to a new life.

498. The New Republic and the Contending Parties. — The first president chosen for the new republic was Thiers, the venerable statesman-historian who had been in the midst of political strife back in the days of Louis Philippe (sec. 473). He was probably the best choice that could have been made; but he was handicapped from the beginning by the fierce contention of political parties.

The contending parties numbered four. The Imperialists or Bonapartists would have restored Louis Napoleon to his throne.[1] The Orleanists wished the Count of Paris, grandson of Louis Philippe (sec. 474) to receive the French throne. The Legitimists sought to restore the old Bourbon line, the "legitimate" heir to which was the Duke of Chambord (shăɴ-bŏr′) — "Henry V," as he had been called in childhood; he was the grandson of Charles X (sec. 470). The Republicans desired to abandon all thought of monarchy and to maintain the republic.[2]

The majority of the Assembly were monarchists, but they could not agree, and while they were wrangling over their candidates the Republicans were gaining. President Thiers proved a strong ruler. Within a few years the country was again prosperous and the war indemnity was paid. But Thiers was obliged to resign (1873) because of his Republican leanings. The monarchists were still very active. They elected Marshal McMahon, one of their own number, president. He was expected to give way to a king. An arrangement was made according to which the Duke of Chambord was to become king and on his death the crown was to pass to the House of Orleans. But the duke frustrated the whole plan by declaring that he would restore the white flag of the Bourbons, which meant, virtually, that if he could not be an absolute monarch he would refuse the crown. The French were not in the mood to accept him on such conditions. The plan fell through and the republic was saved.

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[1] This party was small and without hope of success. Napoleon, after being held in Germany for a few months, went to England, where he died in 1873.

[2] Note that the parties were the same as in 1830, with the Bonapartists added (sec. 472).

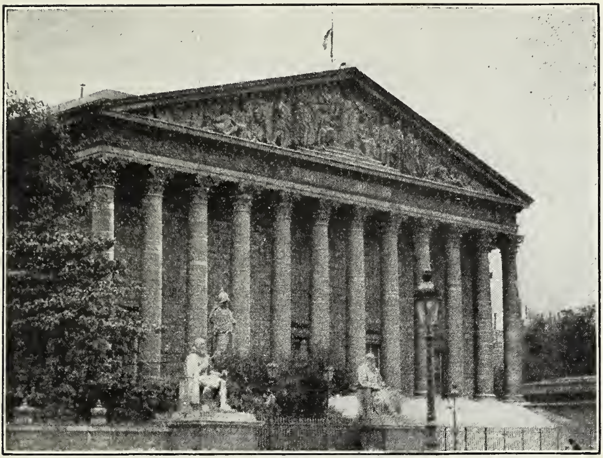
The Assembly then passed a series of laws which form the constitution of the Third French Republic.

II. The French Government

499. The President and the National Assembly. — In France there are no presidential elections by the people, preceded by noisy campaigns, as in this country. The president of France is elected by the two houses of the legislature in joint session, for a term of seven years. But since the establishing of the Third Republic the president has resigned his office on various occasions before serving out his full term. The president acts only through the ministers, whom he appoints, but they are responsible to the Chamber of Deputies. With the consent of the Senate he has power to dissolve the Chamber and call a new election; but on the whole his power is not nearly so great as that of the president of the United States. The premier, or chief of the cabinet ministers, has far greater power than the president of France, just as the British prime minister has more power than the king of Great Britain. Like the British prime minister, also, whenever he fails to command the support of the majority in the Chamber, he either resigns or brings about the election of a new Chamber.

The two houses of the legislature are the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. The Senate is composed of 300 men elected for nine years by electoral colleges. The Deputies are elected for four years by universal manhood suffrage. When the two houses meet in joint session, as they do to elect a president or to amend the constitution, they take the name of the National Assembly.

The present constitution of France was made in 1875, but it has been changed somewhat by amendment. When the constitution was adopted the monarchists still hoped to gain control and to set up a king; but in 1876 an election was held which gave the Republicans a two thirds majority in the Chamber. Three years later the Senate also became Republican, and the hopes of the monarchists fell to zero. From that time to the present



Chamber of Deputies, Paris

The original building, begun in 1722, was a palace. It was enlarged at various times and declared national property during the French Revolution. The side facing the river, shown here, was built in 1804 to 1807, in the style of a Greek temple.

the Republic has held a steady course and it promises to be the permanent government of France. For nearly a century the nation had been tossed about on the billows of revolution, but at last it seems to have a stable government. Even the World War that broke out in 1914 (to be treated in later chapters) had no effect in unsettling the Third Republic.

500. Local Government in France. — In one respect the French Republic is very different from our American republic. France is a unitary or consolidated government; the United States is a federal government. In a consolidated government the national or central authority exercises control in the local affairs of all parts of the country. A federal government is composed of parts, each part having independent powers of self-government. In our country the parts are called states.

In France the central authorities control local government. In our country neither the President and his Cabinet nor Congress has anything to do with the government of the states, the counties, or the townships.

France is divided into about ninety departments and these are subdivided, the smallest division being called the commune, which corresponds in some respects to our township.

The chief officer in a department is the prefect, who is appointed by the minister of the interior at Paris. The prefect is aided in the management of local affairs by a general council elected by the people; but all their acts are under the supervision of the minister of the interior. The mayor of a town or city, though elected by the people (since 1884), is responsible to the minister of the interior, who may revise his acts or remove him from office and call a new election.

III. PROGRESS AT HOME AND ABROAD

501. Industry and Education. — Since the war with Germany in 1870 France has made remarkable progress. The increase in population has been very slow and France does not hold the commanding position among the powers she once held, but the peasantry are more thrifty and prosperous than those of any other country in Europe. France is preëminently a nation of small farmers and savers. Several million farmers in France own each twenty-five acres or less, but they farm intensively and scientifically; they live comfortably and have money to loan. What a contrast between the peasants of to-day and those of the time preceding the Revolution in 1789!

With but a slight increase in population France more than trebled her output of coal and of the factories between 1870 and 1914. She has also maintained a commanding place in science and literature. In the World War of 1914–1918 large areas in northern France were terribly devastated, and millions of Frenchmen were killed or wounded; but the country is rapidly recovering, and is expected to increase greatly its output of coal and manufactured goods.

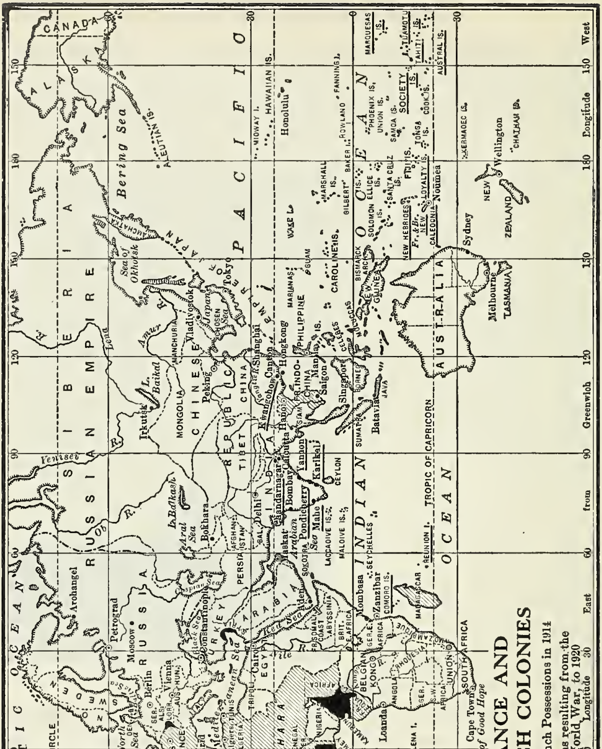
The present French system of education is one of the best in Europe, and it is a growth of the Third Republic. The efforts to introduce popular education before 1870 were not very successful. Since then schools have been established in every commune; the education of children is free and compulsory.

THE EIFFEL TOWER, PARIS

This tower was completed in 1889, to serve as a feature of the Paris Exposition of that year. The view from its summit extends for eighty-five miles. During the World War it was used as a mount for searchlights to prevent German air raids.

502. The Church and the State. — For many years after the republic was founded the monarchists continued to hope for ultimate success. So troublesome did they become that a law was passed in 1886 expelling from the country all claimants to the throne. Among the stanch monarchists of the period were the Catholic clergy. This fact led to various repressive laws against the church. One of these forbade members of the religious orders to teach in the schools; another provided for marriage by civil magistrates, and forbade priests to solemnize a marriage not previously contracted in the presence of a magistrate.

The breach between church and state was growing wider when in 1892 Pope Leo XIII wisely recommended that the clergy cease their opposition to the republic and try to secure their needed



FRANCE AND FRENCH COLONIES

▨ French Possessions in 1914

■ Gains resulting from the World War, to 1920

ARCTIC OCEAN
ARCTIC CIRCLE
TROPIC OF CANCER
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
CANADA
ALASKA
GREENLAND
NEWFOUNDLAND
ST. PIERRE
MIQUELON
ICELAND
FAROE IS.
BRITISH ISLES
London
Paris
FRANCE
Madrid
SPAIN
Lisbon
Berlin
Vienna
SWEDEN
RUSSIA
Petrograd
Moscow
Archangel
Constantinople
TURKEY
ARABIA
PERSIA
AFGHANISTAN
Bokhara
Aral Sea
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Red Sea
Cairo
EGYPT
Nile
TRIPOLI
TUNIS
ALGERIA
MOROCCO
SAHARA
MAURETANIA
SENEGAL
UPPER SENEGAL AND NIGER
St. Louis
FR. GUINEA
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
IVORY COAST
DAHOMEY
TOGO
NIGERIA
KAMERUN
FR. EQU. AFRICA
BELGIAN KONGO
ANGOLA
Loanda
Cape Town
C. of Good Hope
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
RHODESIA
GER. E. AFRICA
BRIT. E. AFRICA
ABYSSINIA
FR. SOMALI COAST
Aden
Mombasa
Zanzibar
COMORO IS.
MADAGASCAR
REUNION I.
SEYCHELLES
ST. HELENA I.
ASCENSION I.
CANARY IS.
MADEIRA IS.
AZORES
C. VERDE IS.
BERMUDA
HAITI
PORTO RICO
GUADELOUPE
MARTINIQUE
BARBADOS
Caracas
VENEZ.
Georgetown
FRENCH GUIANA
BRAZIL
Rio de Janeiro
Montevideo
Buenos Aires
ARGENTINA
BOLIVIA
FALKLAND IS.
Muskat
Arabian Sea
SOKOTRA
Bombay
Delhi
Chandarnagar
Calcutta
Yanaon
Pondicherry
Karikal
Mahe
INDIA
CEYLON
LACCADIVE IS.
MALDIVE IS.
TIBET
MONGOLIA
CHINESE REPUBLIC
CHINA
Peking
Shanghai
Kwangchow
Canton
Hongkong
Hanoi
FR. INDO-CHINA
Saigon
SIAM
Singapore
SUMATRA
BORNEO
JAVA
Batavia
CELEBES
PHILIPPINE IS.
Manila
MOLUCCAS
NEW GUINEA
BISMARCK ARCH.
AUSTRALIA
Melbourne
Sydney
TASMANIA
NEW ZEALAND
Wellington
CHATHAM IS.
KERMADEC IS.
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
SIBERIA
Irkutsk
L. Baikal
L. Balkash
Yenisei R.
Ob R.
Lena R.
Amur R.
MANCHURIA
Vladivostok
CHOSEN
Japan Sea
Tokyo
EMPIRE OF JAPAN
Sea of Okhotsk
KAMCHATKA
Bering Sea
ALEUTIAN IS.
MIDWAY I.
HAWAIIAN IS.
Honolulu
WAKE I.
MARIANAS
GUAM
CAROLINE IS.
MARSHALL IS.
GILBERT
BAKER I.
HOWLAND
FANNING I.
PHOENIX IS.
UNION IS.
SAMOA IS.
ELLICE IS.
SOLOMON IS.
SANTA CRUZ
NEW HEBRIDES Fr. & Br.
NEW CALEDONIA
Noumea
LOYALTY IS.
FIJI IS.
TONGA IS.
COOK IS.
SOCIETY IS.
TAHITI
TUAMOTU IS.
MARQUESAS IS.
AUSTRAL IS.
60 30 0 30 60 90 120 150 180 150
West Longitude 0 Longitude East from Greenwich Longitude West

privileges by supporting it and influencing legislation. For a time conditions were better, but monarchic sympathies still lingered, and the blame was placed on the training of the French youth in the church schools. The government therefore determined on a drastic move. During the first three years of the twentieth century it closed thousands of church schools and ordered that the education of the young be conducted by the state.

A still greater change came in 1905. The Concordat of Napoleon I (sec. 420) after being in force for 104 years, was annulled and a complete separation of church and state was effected. By the terms of the Concordat the clergy were paid from the public treasury. The law of 1905 cut off this stipend with the death of those receiving it. The churches remained the property of the state, but by special arrangement they may still be used by Catholics, Protestants, and Jews. The Catholic party denounced all this as persecution and robbery; but the election of 1906 sustained the anti-clerical party, and the new conditions seem to have been permanently established.

503. Colonial Expansion of France. — In the eighteenth century, as noticed in a former chapter, France lost to Great Britain her great possessions in North America and India (sec. 369). Soon afterwards came the French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars, which left the country in an exhausted condition. Not before 1830 did France begin to look about for colonial possessions, and North Africa then offered the most tempting prize. North Africa, as often stated, with its congenial climate and its fertile soil, is but an overseas extension of Europe, the true Africa beginning with the Sahara.

In 1830 France began the conquest of the half-civilized peoples in Algeria. After years of fierce fighting the country was conquered and annexed to France. Since then it has advanced greatly in civilization, and it sends representatives to the legislative bodies at Paris.

In 1881 France gained control of Tunis and made it a "protectorate."

France continued to extend her power in Africa until she had gained control of Senegal, part of the valley of the Niger, part of the Kongo, most of the great Sahara region, most of Morocco, and the great island of Madagascar. In Asia the chief French possession is the eastern half of the great peninsula of Indo-China. In the Pacific Ocean the French own New Caledonia and a few smaller islands. In the Western Hemisphere the French possessions are meager, consisting of French Guiana and a few small islands.

The French colonial possessions of the world comprise about four million square miles with about forty million population, the great majority of whom are uncivilized. The French colonial policy is wise and humane. The inhabitants enjoy self-government in so far as they are capable of exercising it, and many of them are represented in the home legislature at Paris.

Questions and Topics. — I. For what did the radical party in France in 1871 stand? Do we have such radicals in this country? Would a government be safe in their hands? Name the four French political parties at this time. How did the Republicans secure and retain control?

II. How is the president of France elected? What are his powers as compared with those of the president of the United States? As to the manner of election, which do you like the better? Why? What is another important difference between our government and the French? Distinguish between a federal and a consolidated government.

III. What can you tell of French progress since 1870? of the peasant class? of the school system? State the relations between the government and the Catholic Church. When did modern France become a colonizing country? Describe her colonial expansion.

For Further Reading. — McCarthy, *History of Our Own Times.* Robinson, *Readings in European History,* II. Wright, *A History of the Third French Republic.*

CHAPTER XLI

GERMANY AFTER 1871

I. GOVERNMENT OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

504. Constitution of the German Empire. — While the German government set up under Bismarck's influence in 1871 was overthrown within fifty years, it is worth our study because it had much to do with shaping the recent history of Europe. It is interesting, also, because it contrasted so strongly with the French government which we have just studied in the preceding chapter. The new constitution of Germany, like that of Prussia (sec. 483), gave the monarch nearly absolute power and the people little influence in the government.

The German Empire created in 1871 was made up of twenty-five states and the imperial territory of Alsace-Lorraine. Four of these states were kingdoms (Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, and Württemberg); six were grand duchies; five were duchies; seven were principalities, and three were free cities. Prussia was much larger than all the rest of the states combined. The German kings, grand dukes, dukes, and princes, in framing the constitution, kept much of their power of local government. Unlike the centralized government of France, therefore, the German Empire had a federal government.

The constitution of the German Empire was adopted in March, 1871.[1] It gave the kaiser (kī'zer) or emperor, who was also king of Prussia, power over the army and the management of foreign affairs, also the power to declare war and make treaties without the consent of the people or of their representatives.

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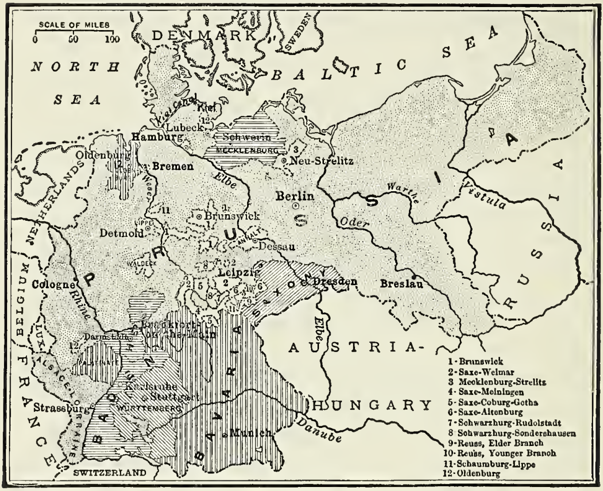
[1] It was somewhat similar to the constitution of the North German Confederation adopted in 1867.

The upper house of the lawmaking body was the Bundesrat (bo͞on′dĕs-rät) or Federal Council, which was composed of fifty-six members chosen by the sovereigns of the various states. Of these Prussia had seventeen, Alsace-Lorraine (under the emperor's control) four, Bavaria six, and other states from one to four each. As several of the lesser sovereigns were always sure to work in harmony with the emperor (king of Prussia), the Bundesrat was practically under the emperor's control.


SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100
NORTH SEA
DENMARK
SWEDEN
BALTIC SEA
Kiel
Lubeck
Hamburg
Schwerin
MECKLENBURG
Neu-Strelitz
Oldenburg
Bremen
NETHERLANDS
Elbe
Berlin
Brunswick
Detmold
LIPPE
Dessau
ANHALT
WALDECK
Leipzig
Dresden
Breslau
Oder
Warthe
Vistula
PRUSSIA
RUSSIA
SAXONY
Cologne
Rhine
BELGIUM
LUX.
Frankfort on the Main
Darmstadt
PALATINATE
ALSACE-LORRAINE
Karlsruhe
Stuttgart
WÜRTTEMBERG
Strassburg
BADEN
BAVARIA
Munich
Danube
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
1-Brunswick
2-Saxe-Weimar
3-Mecklenburg-Strelitz
4-Saxe-Meiningen
5-Saxe-Coburg-Gotha
6-Saxe-Altenburg
7-Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt
8-Schwarzburg-Sondershausen
9-Reuss, Elder Branch
10-Reuss, Younger Branch
11-Schaumburg-Lippe
12-Oldenburg

THE STATES OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg, Baden, Hesse, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Anhalt, Waldeck, Lippe, Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, and twelve named in the corner of the map. Notice that some states are made up of separated areas; for example, the four parts of Brunswick.[1]

The lower house, called the Reichstag (rīks′täᴋ), was composed of 397 members chosen by the voters (men over twenty-five years old) for a term of five years; 236 of them were elected from Prussia. This body had far less power than the Bundesrat, which originated nearly all the laws. Even the taxing laws were in a great measure beyond the reach of the Reichstag, because they were standing laws in force year after year without being reënacted. The chief importance of the Reichstag lay in its right to debate, a means by which the people were enabled to keep informed on matters of government.

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[1] In 1919 eight of the smallest states (numbered 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 on the map) were united in the new state of Thuringia.

German Reichstag in Session

The active head of the ministry or executive branch of the government was the chancellor, who was appointed and removed by the emperor. This position was held by Bismarck for many years after the formation of the empire. Unlike the French or British premier, the German chancellor was not "responsible," that is, not responsible to the Reichstag. He did not need to resign if defeated in that body.

505. Character of the German Government. — The German Empire was far more autocratic in government than any other European country except Russia and Turkey.

The German government was also extremely paternal. In no other country were there such laws against food adulteration or anything that would impair the public health. But the liberty of the citizen was curbed at all points. The police system was rigid in the extreme, and a policeman's testimony in a court was of much greater weight than that of an ordinary witness. If a housewife spread a handkerchief on her window sill she might be fined for violating the law against drying clothes in public. "The policeman," said one writer, "strolls into your house or garden when he likes." To free-born Americans and Englishmen the dominating German police system was utterly distasteful.

The Prussian military system which proved so effective in the wars of 1866 and of 1870 was extended over the whole empire. The compulsory military training and the excessive standing armies imposed a heavy burden on the tax-paying public, in addition to keeping great numbers of young men out of industrial pursuits.

II. GERMANY FROM 1871 TO 1914

506. Emperor William and his Great Chancellor. — The two most conspicuous figures in the new empire were William I and Bismarck. The emperor had reached the ripe age of seventy-four when elevated to the newly erected throne, but he was destined to spend seventeen years as the head of the empire. He was a "fine old man" of great kindliness of heart and deep religious convictions. But he was a stanch believer in the "divine right" theory and had little sympathy with liberal government. Though overshadowed by the transcendent genius of Bismarck, William was a man of much political sagacity: he never relinquished his royal prerogative nor shirked the responsibility that belonged to his great office.

Bismarck, however, like his great Italian prototype, Cavour, was the real creator of the empire. The goal for which he had striven for many years was won. It is uncertain how sincere he may have been when he requested his dismissal from his master, now that his life-work was accomplished. The answer was the single word "Never," and the two continued their work together for nearly two decades longer. During all this period the "Iron

Chancellor" had almost complete control of the home and foreign affairs of Germany. Doubtless he enjoyed the exercise of his power; but he was unselfish, he despised pomp, and cared little for personal honors;[1] his whole being was devoted to one object — the building up of Germany. Imperious by nature, he was often severe, almost heartless, in his dealings with other men and with nations, but his devotion to his country was unfaltering. Scarcely greater was Bismarck's work in unifying Germany than in the management of the empire for nearly twenty years.

Fearing the sleepless resentment of France on account of the loss of Alsace-Lorraine, Prince Bismarck's foreign policy was directed to keeping that country weak. For a number of years he prevented any coalition between France and other powers. In 1879 he brought about an alliance between the German Empire and Austria-Hungary, which later became the Triple Alliance when Italy joined it.

507. The Church Quarrel. — A quarrel with the Catholic Church was brought about partly by the decree of the Vatican Council held at Rome in 1870, which pronounced the pope infallible in defining the doctrines of the church regarding faith and morals. Some of the Germans and Swiss refused to accept this doctrine; they seceded from the church and formed the "Old Catholic" sect. Bismarck took advantage of this defection and sided with the malcontents, in the hope of making the state supreme over the church. But the majority of discontented churchmen fell back into line within a year or two and the chancellor found himself with a serious problem on his hands.

He secured the passage of laws to expel the Jesuits, to make bishops and priests state officials, and to take from the church the control of marriage and education. For several years, from 1875 to 1879, these laws were in effect. The pope pronounced them null and void, and all faithful Catholics felt in duty bound to disregard them. The result was that great numbers of churches and schools were closed and many priests and teachers were thrown into prison.

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[1] In 1871 Bismarck was raised to the rank of Prince. One day soon after his elevation the Austrian minister asked him how he enjoyed his new honors, and he answered that he felt quite as comfortable as before.

Bismarck had boasted that he " would not go to Canossa " (sec. 222), but at length he began to weaken. Several causes contributed to his change of front. One was the fact that Pope Pius IX died in 1878 and the chancellor recognized the possibility of making peace with his successor, Leo XIII. Another cause was that the Catholic members in the Reichstag had formed a compact party called the Center. This party opposed the chancellor, not only with regard to the anti-Catholic laws, but in other matters in which he needed their assistance especially in combating the Socialists, who were rapidly gaining strength in Germany. The obnoxious laws were therefore repealed one by one, and the chancellor turned about to grapple with his next foe.

508. Karl Marx and Socialism. — The creator of modern socialism was Karl Marx, a German born of Jewish parents. He was a profound philosophic thinker, and exerted a widespread influence. In nearly every country to-day there is a political party that calls itself Socialist and builds its doctrines on the writings of Marx. Too radical to please the German authorities, Marx was forced while yet a young man to flee from his native land. He took up his residence in Paris, but being expelled from France, he found refuge in London, which became his permanent home.

In his numerous writings Marx advanced the doctrine that as wealth is created by labor it should be owned by the laborers. He declared that history is the record of struggles between classes — that in ancient times it was a struggle between the master and the slave, in the Middle Ages it was between the feudal lord and the serf, and that in modern times the contest is between the employer and the laborer. He believed that the employer should be dispensed with and that the state should own the sources of wealth. His greatest work, *Capital*, published in 1867, has become the bible of socialism.

509. Socialist Doctrines. — Socialists of the present time have modified the doctrines of Marx to some extent, and they are by no means agreed at all points among themselves; but in general they assert that our economic and industrial system is wrong, because under it one man may amass great wealth and another may remain poor and dependent and sometimes unemployed; because one man receives more and another less than his rightful share of the wealth produced by society; and because one man is permitted to govern another man's time or make a profit on his labor. They also deplore the great waste through competition and competitive advertising and through business panics and unemployment.

The remedy for social and industrial evils lies, according to the Socialists, in government ownership. Let the state, as the agent of the people, own and operate all sources of wealth and the means of transportation — the mines, the factories, the railroads, etc.; and let all the people be employed by the state. Under the Socialist plan, while a man might own his home he could not employ his fellow-man or produce commodities for the market; that would be done only by the government. And under government control the Socialists claim that more goods would be produced with less labor, and would be distributed fairly — some say equally.

The great majority of people do not believe that the Socialist program is workable; they believe that it would result in inefficient and therefore lessened production, and an arbitrary distribution of the decreased product; that the average laborer would very soon fare worse under that system than at present. They argue that, after all, any government is human, that there is no superhuman power to allot to each member of society his rightful place, but that each man can best find it for himself by personal effort and through competition with his fellows. The Socialists are accused of taking too little account of the great and obvious fact that nature made men utterly unlike in their capacities; some are born to lead and others to follow, and while the state should protect the weak by wise laws, any system that would equalize them forcefully would be a striving against nature and would be disastrous.

510. Socialism in Germany. — The chief founder of the Socialist party in Germany was Lassalle (lȧ-sȧl′), a brilliant writer and able organizer, who was killed in a duel in 1864 at the age of thirty-nine. Though Lassalle and Marx differed widely at some points, their respective followers combined in 1875 and formed the Social Democratic party. Two years later the party cast half a million votes and won twelve seats in the Reichstag. The party was composed almost wholly of the laboring classes, and their object was to combat the privileges of the capitalist class.

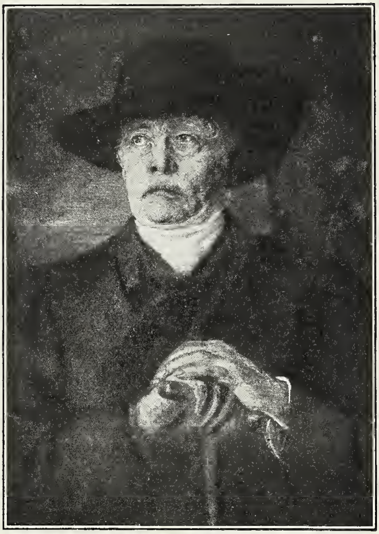
Bismarck was alarmed lest the movement endanger the empire, and his fear was increased by two attempts on the life of Emperor William. He believed that socialism should be suppressed, and in 1878 he secured the passage of laws giving the government authority to suppress Socialist newspapers, to forbid public meetings, and to suspend the right of trial by jury. These laws were rigidly enforced, and for a few years they gave the appearance of seriously crippling socialism.

The Iron Chancellor, however, saw that socialism was not dead, and he tried another policy. He secured the passage of laws providing pensions for laborers disabled by sickness, accident, or old age. Bismarck declared his belief that if the government would take care of the indigent laborers the call of the Socialists would be in vain. In the enactment of such laws Germany preceded all other countries, and they have done great good; but they did not destroy socialism.

By 1890 the Socialist vote in Germany reached almost a million and a half. From that time the growth of the Socialists was rapid. In 1912 the party polled 4,240,000 out of a vote of about 12,000,000.

Its aims were not so radical as some would believe. It advocated an eight-hour labor day, child labor law, initiative and referendum, progressive income tax, and various other things that would not be considered extreme in this country.

511. William II and the Fall of Bismarck. — With all the remarkable successes in the career of the Iron Chancellor, he was conscious of defeat in his contention with the Catholic Church and again in his fight with the Socialists; but his greatest humiliation remained for his old age.



Bismarck

Portrait by Lenbach.

Emperor William I, who was opposed to liberal government, died in 1888 at the great age of ninety-one. His son and successor, a son-in-law of Queen Victoria of England, was Frederick III. He was an admirer of the liberal government of Great Britain, and not in sympathy with his father and Bismarck. But he was suffering with a fatal disease and he wore the imperial crown but three months. He died in June, 1888, and was succeeded by his son, William II, then twenty-nine years old.

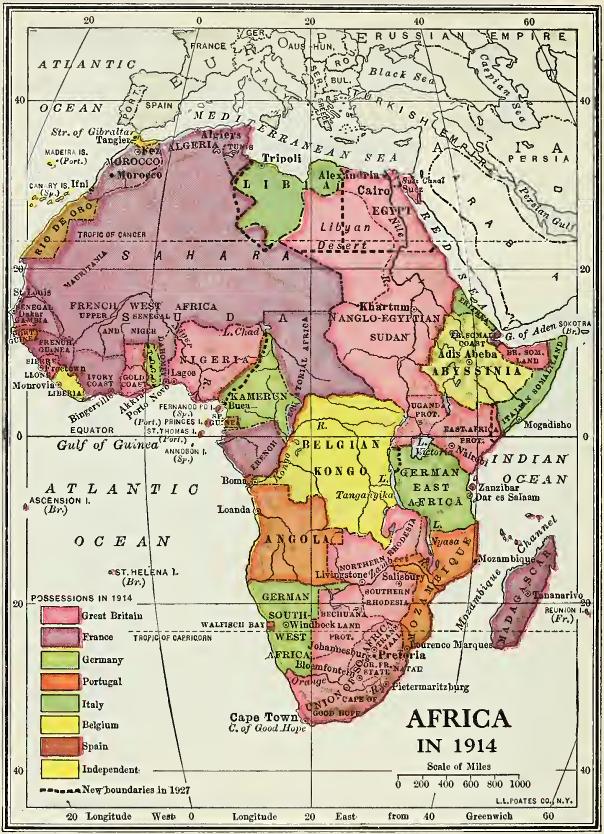
William II proved to be a man of "tempestuous energy," a leader who could brook no rival leader in the same class with himself. The result was that he and Bismarck soon quarreled and the great chancellor was dismissed from his office (1890). He retired to his estates and spent his remaining nine years in private life.

William II was as much opposed to liberalism as was his grandfather. Frequently he declared his belief in the divine right of kings, as the doctrine was held two centuries ago. In an address in 1890 he pronounced the French Revolution "an unmitigated crime against God and man." Whatever tendency toward democracy there was in Germany during his reign came not from him, but from the Liberal and Socialist parties. He maintained "personal rule," and all great political questions were decided by himself and not by his ministers. He was, however, under the influence of the Junkers (yo͞ong'kerz), or landowning nobles of Prussia, the class from which came most of the high officials, the army generals, and the great financial magnates of the country.

512. German Colonies. — At the eleventh hour Germany woke up to the importance of securing colonial possessions. Great Britain had acquired a vast colonial empire, France and other countries had caught the modern colony-building spirit; but the German states before the founding of the empire had no colonizing impulse, and it was some years after that event before German interest in the subject was awakened. When the terms of peace with France were made in 1871 it seems to have occurred to no one to demand the cession of Indo-China, the great French possession in the Far East.

In the early eighties Germany began to cast about for colonial possessions, for two reasons: to open up new regions for German trade, and to furnish a home under their own flag for those who desired to leave the Fatherland. To the United States alone two million Germans had migrated in the twenty years ending in 1885.

But Germany was late in the field. The earth was well nigh parceled out already. South America offered a tempting prize, but the Monroe Doctrine guarded the gateway of the Western World. Asia was largely preëmpted by Russia, France, and Great Britain. Africa offered the most available field. The explorations of Livingstone and Stanley had called the world's attention to the future possibilities of the Dark Continent, and with the


AFRICA
IN 1914
Scale of Miles
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L.L.POATES CO., N.Y.
POSSESSIONS IN 1914
Great Britain
France
Germany
Portugal
Italy
Belgium
Spain
Independent
New boundaries in 1927
20 Longitude West 0 Longitude 20 East from 40 Greenwich 60
ATLANTIC OCEAN
EUROPE
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
FRANCE
GER.
AUS.-HUN.
SPAIN
PORT.
ITALY
SER.
RO.
BUL.
GREECE
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
TURKISH EMPIRE
ASIA
PERSIA
ARABIA
Persian Gulf
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Str. of Gibraltar
Tangier
MADEIRA IS. (Port.)
CANARY IS. (Sp.)
Ifni
Fez
MOROCCO
Morocco
Algiers
ALGERIA
TUNIS
Tripoli
LIBIA
Alexandria
Cairo
Suez
Suez Canal
EGYPT
Nile
Libyan Desert
RED SEA
RIO DE ORO
TROPIC OF CANCER
SAHARA
MAURITANIA
St. Louis
SENEGAL
Dakar
GAMBIA
PORT. GUINEA
FRENCH GUINEA
SIERRE LEONE
Freetown
Monrovia
LIBERIA
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
UPPER SENEGAL AND NIGER
IVORY COAST
GOLD COAST
TOGO
DAHOMEY
Bingerville
Akkra
Porto Novo
Lagos
NIGERIA
Niger R.
L. Chad
KAMERUN
Buea
FERNANDO PO I. (Sp.)
PRINCES I. (Port.)
ST. THOMAS I. (Port.)
SP. GUINEA
ANNOBON I. (Sp.)
EQUATOR
Gulf of Guinea
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA
Khartum
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
ERITREA
FR. SOMALI COAST
G. of Aden
SOKOTRA (Br.)
BR. SOM. LAND
Adis Abeba
ABYSSINIA
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
Mogadisho
UGANDA PROT.
EAST AFRICA PROT.
L. Victoria
Nairobi
INDIAN OCEAN
BELGIAN KONGO
Kongo R.
Boma
Loanda
L. Tanganyika
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
Zanzibar
Dar es Salaam
L. Nyasa
ANGOLA
NORTHERN RHODESIA
Zambezi R.
Livingstone
Salisbury
SOUTHERN RHODESIA
MOZAMBIQUE
Mozambique
Mozambique Channel
MADAGASCAR
Tananarivo
REUNION I. (Fr.)
ASCENSION I. (Br.)
ST. HELENA I. (Br.)
GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA
WALFISCH BAY
Windhoek
BECHUANALAND PROT.
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
Johannesburg
Pretoria
TRANSVAAL
Lourenco Marques
ORANGE FR. STATE
Bloemfontein
NATAL
Pietermaritzburg
Orange R.
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
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C. of Good Hope
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40

Facing 581

Africa in 1914

In the World War of 1914–1918, Germany lost her colonies. The western borders of Togo and of Kamerun passed under British control, but the greater part of these colonies was taken over by the French. The British secured control of German East Africa, with the exception of the northwest corner, which went to Belgium. German Southwest Africa was assigned to the Union of South Africa, a British self-governing dominion. The boundaries of Italian possessions were readjusted.

occupation of Egypt by Great Britain in 1882 (sec. 528) the real scramble for African territory began. Before that time Great Britain, France, Portugal, and other states had possession of small portions, but nine tenths of the great mysterious continent was still unclaimed by civilized man.

Under Bismarck's leadership, Germany adopted an African policy in 1884. The possession of Togo and Kamerun (kä-må-rōōn′) on the coast of Guinea was soon followed by the acquisition of two great tracts known as German Southwest Africa and German East Africa. These possessions aggregated more than a million square miles, supporting a great population of whom only a small fraction were white.

Germany also acquired several groups of islands in the western Pacific Ocean, and in 1897 she gained a foothold in China, as Great Britain, France, and Russia had done before. The murder of two German missionaries by Chinese furnished the occasion for demanding from China the very important harbor of Kiaochow (kyou′chō′) and the adjacent territory. This possession proved of great advantage to German trade.

513. Later Development and Progress of Germany. — Unlike France, Germany increased greatly in population after 1871. In spite of the heavy emigration from the country, the population of the empire increased from 41,000,000 to 65,000,000 in less than fifty years. In 1870 the one great industry was agriculture. But so great a population in a country but four fifths the size of Texas could hardly live by farming alone. A normal remedy for the threatened shortage of food was to engage in manufacturing, to develop foreign commerce, and to trade the products of the factory for foodstuffs. The German nation set out to become a manufacturing people.

Wonderful was the industrial progress of the Germans after the beginning of the empire. They borrowed many of their ideas from other nations, but their own scientists and inventors, notably painstaking and thorough in technical skill, aided greatly in the industrial life of the country. The seizure of Alsace-Lorraine added much to Germany's supply of iron and coal, and at the same time crippled her rival France. The empire adopted a high protective tariff system, and aided German manufacturers to secure foreign markets. The demand for labor at home became so great that emigration almost ceased.

HANGING RAILWAY BETWEEN BARMEN AND ELBERFELD, GERMANY

This suspended trolley line is built over the bed of the River Wupper and connects two neighboring cities in one of the most important manufacturing centers of Germany. The rapid industrial and commercial development of Germany had a significant bearing on its domestic and foreign policies before the World War.

The results of the new conditions were the rapid growth of cities, a great increase in the number of laborers, the building of an extensive merchant marine, and a great foreign trade. In 1914 the only nations that outranked Germany in manufacturing and commerce were the United States and Great Britain.

Meanwhile Germany had built up an educational system that attracted world-wide attention. Education was compulsory, and the percentage of illiteracy very low. But in one respect German education differed from that in all other countries. It was made to support and exalt the autocracy, from the kindergarten to the university. School children were taught to revere the kaiser until he became to them almost a god, and the Fatherland was exalted until all other countries were dwarfed in comparison. The result of this feature of German education was that the German people, by nature docile and kind-hearted, were led to foster a narrow and selfish patriotism and to support their rulers in schemes of aggression however ruthless.

Questions and Topics. — I. Compare the constitutions of France and of the German Empire. What is a federal government? Which of the two German houses was granted the greater power? How does the British government compare with the German in this respect? If one house of a bicameral legislature is elected by the people and the other not, as in both Germany and Great Britain, which should have the more governing power? Why? What is meant by paternalism? Describe the German police system.

II. Describe the character of Bismarck. Why did he wish to keep France weak? What can you tell of his quarrel with the Catholic Church? What can you tell of Karl Marx? What are the fundamental principles of socialism? What can you tell of Frederick III? Of William II, and his quarrel with Bismarck? Tell when and how Germany began to acquire colonies; of her industrial progress; her school system.

For Further Reading. — Henderson, *Short History of Germany.* Lowell, *Governments and Parties in Continental Europe,* 2 vols. Also Fyffe, Andrews and Seignobos, before mentioned.

CHAPTER XLII

GREAT BRITAIN AFTER 1850

I. DISRAELI AND GLADSTONE

514. **Passing of Robert Peel.** — Sir Robert Peel, with the aid of such men as Richard Cobden and John Bright, had brought about the repeal of the British corn laws (sec. 468). But in doing this Peel was obliged to trample on the principles of the Conservative party to which he had always belonged. Bitterly attacked, he swung away from the party and carried with him about forty members of Parliament who were afterward known as "Peelites."

Robert Peel had been a leader in the House of Commons for forty years. Though not gifted with oratory, he had great powers of leadership among his immediate followers. Deeply devoted to the welfare of his country, he did not hesitate to sacrifice his party or himself if convinced that the public good demanded the sacrifice. Two of his most enduring monuments — Catholic emancipation in 1829 and the repeal of the corn laws in 1846 — were both erected in the face of the opposition of his own party. In 1850 Peel was killed by a fall from his horse. England still remembers him as one of the strongest men of his time.

For twenty years after the repeal of the corn laws the British government held the even tenor of its way. The most important occurrences were the Crimean War (sec. 485) and the stirring events in India (sec. 524). During this period the leading men in the public eye were Lords John Russell, Derby, Aberdeen, and Palmerston, none of whose achievements were so vital as to require notice in our brief space.

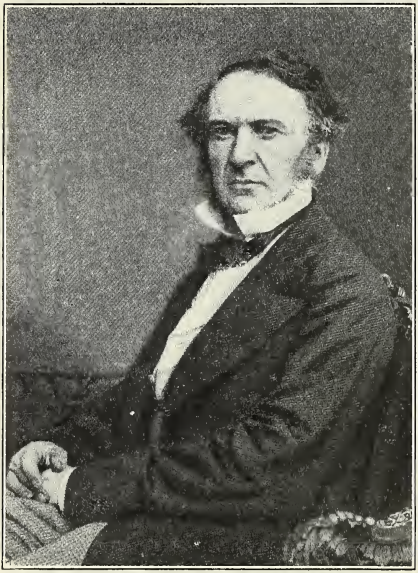
Meantime Gladstone (glăd′stun) and Disraeli (dĭz-rā′lĭ) were approaching the period of their mature powers, and with the passing of the elder statesmen they were ready to take up the reins of government. Disraeli became prime minister first in 1868, but his hold on the Commons was so precarious that he was forced to resign within the year and give place to his great rival.

515. Beginning of Gladstone's Career. — William Ewart Gladstone, born in 1809, the son of a rich, aristocratic merchant of Liverpool, received a thorough education at Oxford, and entered the House of Commons in 1833. For sixty years he was continuously in public life. Four times he held the great office of premier. Like Peel he would sacrifice himself or his party for the public good. He was deeply religious; he had a wonderful store of knowledge outside the realm of his profession. For half a century he was regarded as the most eloquent public speaker in England, with the possible exception of John Bright. In his later career he was known as the " Grand Old Man."

Gladstone was " brought up to distrust and dislike liberty," as he confessed. He entered Parliament as a Tory at the age of twenty-four. Though born and bred a Tory, he was by nature a liberal and a democrat. He became a Peelite and later the leader of the Liberal party.

Gladstone's first ministry was over five years, 1868–1874. It was a period of extraordinary reforms. First among these were the Irish reforms to be noticed later (sec. 520). Next came the Education Act of 1870. Great Britain had lagged sadly behind the United States, Prussia, and other countries in the matter of educating her children. Of the four million children of school age in 1870 not more than half had any school opportunities whatever. Parliament had granted niggardly sums in the past. In 1839, for example, when 70,000 pounds were devoted to building the queen's stables, 30,000 pounds had been granted for schools. Certainly it was time for Great Britain to wake up to the importance of educating the masses if she hoped to retain her place among enlightened nations. The law of 1870, which need not here be described, proved a great step in the right direction. This was amended and improved in 1902, but even yet Great Britain does not stand in the front rank in the matter of public education.

Two or three other important reforms marked this same year, 1870. One was a reform in the civil service by which candidates for appointment to many positions were required to take competitive examinations. Another of equal or greater importance was an abolition of the sale of commissions in the army. It had been the custom of the rich and influential to buy their promotion, a plan by which many incompetents were placed in responsible positions. The custom was abolished in the face of fierce opposition.



Gladstone, about 1870

In 1871 the great universities of Oxford and Cambridge were thrown open to Roman Catholics and Protestant Dissenters, no religious test being required.

These and various other reforms made the Gladstone ministry unpopular. Each reform alienated certain classes, and when a new election was held in 1874 the Liberal party was defeated, the Conservatives winning by a large majority.

The Gladstone ministry with all its vigorous reforms at home was weak in foreign relations. The only foreign matter of primary importance disposed of was the *Alabama* claims of the United States, which were settled by arbitration. On the other hand, Disraeli instituted a vigorous foreign policy.

516. Disraeli, Lord Beaconsfield. — Benjamin Disraeli was a lifelong rival and political enemy of Gladstone. Born of Jewish parents,[1] the son of a famous man of letters, Disraeli early displayed a brilliant mind and became the author of several successful novels. He entered Parliament as a Tory or Conservative and so remained to the end of his life. When Peel forsook his party to repeal the corn laws, Disraeli was his keenest and bitterest critic. Later Disraeli became the leader of his party and was premier in 1868 and again in 1874–1880. In 1876 he became Lord Bea′consfield and took his seat in the House of Lords.

Perhaps the greatest service Disraeli ever rendered his country was his purchase of a controlling interest in the Suez Canal, the eastern gateway of the Mediterranean. On the completion of the canal in 1869 by the famous French engineer, De Lesseps′, it was quickly seen what a great advantage it would be to Great Britain on account of her relations to India. In 1875 Disraeli seized an opportunity to make the purchase for his government, and since then Great Britain has had control of the great waterway.

Another signal victory of the Disraeli ministry was that of the Congress of Berlin in 1878, but the honor of that victory is open to question. Russia had made war on Turkey in defense of the outraged Christian subjects of the sultan. Turkey was defeated, and the treaty of San Stefano (stā′fä-no), which marked the end of the war, gave Russia some advantages that aroused British jealousy. Disraeli (now called Lord Beaconsfield) cared little for the welfare of the Christians in Turkey, and he was obsessed with a consuming fear of Russia. The Congress of Berlin was a notable assembly of great powers. Its purpose was to revise the treaty of San Stefano, under which the boundaries of Bulgaria were extended to take in nearly all of Macedonia. Bulgaria was supposed to be under Russian influence, and the powers were afraid that Russia might grow too strong in the Balkans and perhaps even get control of Constantinople later on. The Congress of Berlin therefore arranged a new treaty by which most of Macedonia was put back under Turkish rule, and the Christians there were left unprotected from the cruelties of the sultan.

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[1] The family, however, were converted to the Church of England.

Gladstone had retired from the leadership of his party, but he was so displeased with the policy of Beaconsfield that he went up and down the country denouncing it in bitter terms to the great crowds that gathered to hear him. And he won in the end. At the next election his rival was finally overthrown and Gladstone again was called to the premiership.

517. The Second and Third Reforms of Parliament. — The most notable single enactment of British law in the nineteenth century was the Reform of 1832, related in a former chapter (sec. 461). But it was incomplete. It redistributed the seats in Parliament and it extended the franchise, but the representation was still uneven, and five Englishmen out of every six were still excluded from the ballot. Thirty-five years passed before it was agreed by both great parties that further reform was necessary. Hence came the Second Reform Bill, 1867.

By this act a redistribution of seats in Parliament was provided for and the franchise was extended to a great number of men who had previously been without the vote. But a property test was still required and great numbers of farm laborers and miners yet remained without the right to vote. Hence there was room for still further reform.

The Third Reform Bill, 1884, came in the second ministry of Gladstone. By this bill the franchise was extended to almost all classes of men, adding about 2,000,000 to the voting list of the realm. The next year a third redistributing of the seats in the House of Commons was enacted and the number of members was increased to 670, of whom 495 were elected from England (and Wales), 72 from Scotland, and 103 from Ireland.

II. IRELAND AND THE IRISH

518. Ireland Conquered by the English. — The Irish are a Celtic race, and not, like the English and most of the Scotch, of Teutonic origin. As early as 1170 the English king, Henry II, made an effort to conquer the island, but met with slight success. Nearly four centuries passed after the time of Henry II before the English gained much foothold in Ireland. Henry VIII made an effort to extend English law over the island, and during the reigns of Edward VI and Mary, and especially of Elizabeth, many of the fighting clans were conquered, about one third of the population being destroyed. In that same century was begun the baneful system which was the chief cause of the bitter feeling between the two peoples — the parceling out of Irish lands to English landlords. The process continued under later sovereigns until the greater part of the country was owned by "absentee" landlords, so called because they resided in England.

The lot of the Irish peasant was a hard one. Living in a miserable hovel, he was obliged to pay in rent to his landlord nearly all that he could earn above what was necessary to keep him and his family from starvation. If he drained a swamp or improved a building or fertilized the soil, his rent was speedily raised and the fruits of his extra labor went to his landlord.[1] Moreover, he could be evicted from his home at any time and for any reason by his landlord. A small number of English, who had settled in Ireland, constituted the ruling class and controlled the Irish Parliament.

Again and again the Irish rose against their masters, only to be put down. After one of these uprisings, in 1798, William Pitt the younger, then premier of Great Britain, determined to bring about a union of the governments of the two islands. The Act of Union, passed in 1800, made Ireland a part of the United Kingdom, with representatives in the British Parliament at London.

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[1] Except in Ulster, the northern part of Ireland, settled chiefly by Scotch.

519. Gladstone and the Irish Question. — On becoming prime minister for the first time, in 1868, the first thing that Gladstone did was to have a law passed disestablishing the Protestant Episcopal Church in Ireland. Before that time the Irish, although most of them had always been Roman Catholics, were taxed to support the established Episcopal Church. But since 1868 that church has been without support from the government.

Repressive laws, potato famines, and a continuous stream of emigration for many years, chiefly to the United States, had greatly reduced the population.[1] The two Irish problems yet to be solved were the land question and the Home Rule question. For many years these have occupied the attention of the British Parliament.

520. The Irish Land Laws. — The disestablishment of the church having been disposed of, Gladstone turned his attention to the land question. In 1870 a law was passed, the main features of which were (1) the right of a tenant when evicted to receive from the landlord a compensation for the improvements he had made, and (2) an arrangement by which a tenant might receive a long-time loan from the government to aid him in buying his little farm. In 1881, during the second ministry of Gladstone, another land bill was passed creating a court by which a "fair rent" for the Irish tenant was to be fixed.

The second ministry of Gladstone (1880–1885), was followed by a Conservative ministry with the Marquis of Salisbury as premier. One of its first acts was an improvement of the Irish land laws. The land laws of 1870 and of 1881 had provided that only a part of the money required by a tenant in purchasing his farm be advanced by the government, and few of the tenants took advantage of the opportunity. The new law provided that the government advance the whole purchase price, at four per cent, repayable in forty-nine years.

The final settlement of the land question came in 1903, when a

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[1] The population of Ireland in 1841 was 8,175,124; in 1871 it was 5,412,377; in 1911 it was 4,390,219.

Conservative government passed a law providing for the loan of the sum of $500,000,000 to the Irish tenants to enable them to purchase their farms. This law seems to be working well and promises to settle the Irish land question to the satisfaction of all.

521. Gladstone and Home Rule. — The leader of the Irish party in Parliament and the champion of Home Rule was Charles Stewart Par′nell. Though a Protestant, Parnell espoused the cause of the Irish Catholics. He was the leading agitator in securing the land laws and was foremost in promoting Home Rule for Ireland. Home Rule did not mean independence, but the establishing of a local Parliament in Dublin to legislate in Irish affairs.

In 1886, for a third time, Gladstone became prime minister and soon afterward startled his party and the whole country by coming out for Irish Home Rule. But he caused a disruption of his own party. Nearly a hundred Liberals, led by John Bright and Joseph Chamberlain, seceded from his party, called themselves Liberal Unionists, and later joined the Conservative party.

Gladstone made a brave fight for Home Rule, but was defeated in the Commons; and in the new election that followed, the same year, 1886, the Conservatives won a victory. Lord Salisbury again became premier and held the post until 1892, when the Liberals came back to power and for a fourth time Gladstone was premier.

In February, 1893, Gladstone introduced his second Home Rule Bill, though the Liberal majority in the House of Commons was only forty and would have been a minority but for the Irish members. The Home Rule bill of 1886 excluded Irish members from the British Parliament at London, but that of 1893 did not. After an exciting debate of three months the bill passed the House of Commons, but in the House of Lords it was defeated by a large majority.

Gladstone was chagrined at the defeat of his measure, but he did not feel that the demand of the country for its passage was great enough to warrant him in making another effort. Moreover, he was weary of public life after his service of more than half a century, and bending under the burden of eighty-five years, the Grand Old Man resigned his office (1894) and retired to his estate in Wales, where he died in 1898. Home Rule was abandoned for a time, nor did it occupy the center of the stage again for nearly twenty years.

522. Later Stages of Home Rule. — The Liberals made the passing of an Irish Home Rule measure a part of their program in the general election of 1910, and they won the election.

In April, 1912, Premier Herbert Henry Asquith introduced a Home Rule Bill in the House of Commons. Although the House of Lords had by that time been deprived of its veto power (sec. 534), a determined opposition came from another quarter. Most of the people of Ulster (northern Ireland) were opposed to Home Rule. A large majority of them were Protestants and they feared a dominating control of Irish affairs by the Catholics.[1]

The opposition from Ulster became very serious. It was led by Sir Edward Carson, a brilliant lawyer and former cabinet member. A great gathering of 150,000 Ulstermen in July, 1913, adopted a resolution to resist Home Rule by arms if it became necessary. An Ulster army of 100,000 was enrolled and civil war seemed imminent.

Mr. Asquith proposed a compromise offering to grant the nine counties of Ulster the option of remaining outside the operation of the law for a period of six years. The Ulster leaders demanded to know what was to happen at the end of the six years. No settlement on that point was reached. Several high officials of the army resigned, declaring that they would not make war on Ulster. In spite of all this the Home Rule Bill passed its third reading in the House of Commons on May 25, 1914, and was ready to be sent to the king for his signature regardless of what the House of Lords might do.

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[1] The bill, however, provided that the Irish Parliament should not make any law to establish any religion or prohibit the free exercise thereof; nor should it make laws affecting the army, the navy, coinage, or foreign relations. The Irish Parliament was to consist of a Senate of 40 members and a House of Commons of 164 members, and Ireland was to have a reduced representation (42 members) in the House of Commons in London.

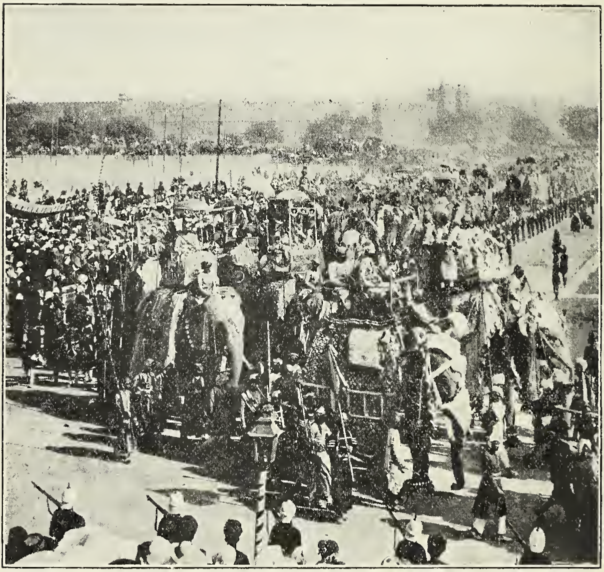
Then, late in July, came the outbreak of the World War. The Ulstermen forgot their opposition in the face of the foreign peril; some of the Catholic Irish also rallied to the defense of their common country. The Home Rule Bill was suspended, and the subject of Home Rule was left over for the future. Some Irishmen were demanding the entire independence of Ireland; others would be satisfied with partial self-government such as the Home Rule bills had proposed; but the Ulstermen objected to either plan.

III. The British Colonial Empire

523. Extent and Character of the Empire. — When Rome "sat on her seven hills and ruled the world" she ruled perhaps one fourth as many people and one fifth as much land as now comprise the British Empire. The English have been the greatest colonizers in history, though they began to give attention to colonization only about four centuries ago.

The British Empire in 1914 (map following page 602) comprised about 12,000,000 square miles with a population of 425,000,000, one fourth of the human race. Of this vast number of people only about one eighth were of English, Scotch, or Irish blood. Most of the remaining seven eighths were Africans or Orientals, great numbers of whom were only partly civilized. Whatever may be said of the land-greed of Great Britain, it cannot be denied that wherever she has broken down a native government, she has set up a better one in its place. She learned her lesson in the American Revolution and she makes no pretense of taxing her colonies for her own benefit. The expansion of England into this immense empire has been a great civilizing force and her colonial policy has always been infinitely superior to that of ancient Rome.

To the empire in 1914 belonged four great continental possessions — India, Canada, Australia, and South Africa. All of these except India were self-governing, and almost independent except in the control of their foreign relations. To these immense continental possessions must be added Newfoundland, New Zealand, British Guiana, Egypt, British East Africa and other African possessions; also the great fortress of Gibraltar, the islands of Trinidad, Jamaica, Cyprus, Ceylon, and many others in all parts of the world. A few of these must have a separate notice.



INDIAN PRINCES IN THE DURBAR PROCESSION

In December, 1911, George V was crowned Emperor of India, at Delhi. The visit of King George and Queen Mary to India on this occasion was the first such visit of the king and queen in the history of British rule. The Durbar was a gathering of the native rulers of India, to take part in the coronation ceremonies.

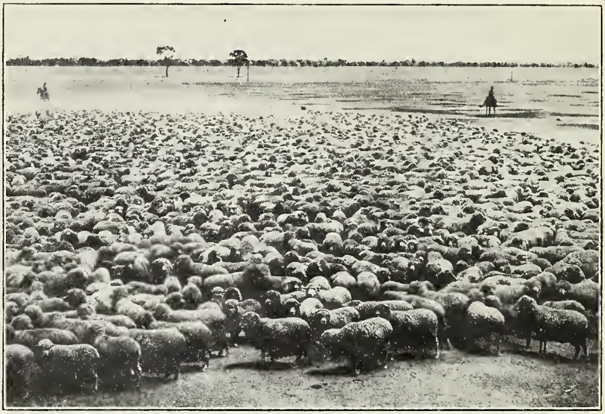
524. **British India.** — The acquisition of British authority in India under Lord Clive, in rivalry with the French, has been related in a former chapter (sec. 369). Perhaps the greatest of all

English governors sent to India was Richard Wellesley, brother of the Duke of Wellington, the victor of Waterloo. Wellesley was sent out in 1798 and within a few years he had crushed all hopes of the French getting a foothold in the great peninsula, in spite of the intrigues of Napoleon with the native chiefs. Wellesley has been called the creator of the Indian Empire. In 1848 the Marquis of Dalhousie (dăl-hōō′zĭ), another wise and able ruler, became governor of India. Within a few years he built roads and canals and railroads, threaded the country with telegraph wires, and built up harbors.

The "Great Mutiny" came in 1857, a memorable year in the history of British India. This was not really an uprising of the people, but rather a conspiracy of chiefs and native soldiers who chafed under British rule because their opportunities for plundering the people were greatly curtailed. The conspirators appealed to the religious prejudices of the people. They declared that the railroads and telegraph lines were magical bands to convert the people to Christianity, and that the use of greased cartridges by the British was an outrage and an insult to the religions that held sacred the animals from which the grease was obtained.

The revolt covered a million square miles. Two British armies hastened to join the troops already there, and with the aid of many native soldiers order was restored early in 1858. The government of India was then transferred from the East India Company to the British crown, and later Queen Victoria was given the title of Empress of India. The governor of India, appointed by the British government, is now called Viceroy. Large parts of the country are still under native rulers, over whom Great Britain exercises a general suzerainty.

525. Australia. — For centuries a belief prevailed in Europe that somewhere in the far-away South Pacific there was an unknown land of continental magnitude. Early in the seventeenth century Dutch traders discovered the north and west coasts of the island-continent of Australia. In 1770 Captain James Cook, an English explorer, sailed along the eastern coast and took possession of the whole land in the name of Great Britain. For a time Australia was a dumping ground for English convicts, but as more respectable settlers came in this practice was discontinued. About the year 1800 sheep raising was introduced, and proved to be very profitable; to-day there are tens of millions of sheep grazing on the boundless Australian plains.



An Australian Sheep Farm

The discovery of gold in Australia in 1851 brought a great influx of fortune hunters, and a reign of disorder and violence which continued for years. At length order was restored, and in 1881, when the population was over 2,000,000, an unsuccessful effort was made to bring the different colonies of Australia under a single government. Twenty years later a federal union was brought about, largely through the efforts of Sir Henry Parkes, the "Grand Old Man of Australia."

The Commonwealth of Australia was formed with the sanction of the British government, on the first day of the new century, January 1, 1901. It is composed of six states — New South

Wales, Western Australia, South Australia, Queensland, Victoria, and the island-state of Tasmania. Each state has its own local government, the people electing one or both houses of their Parliament, and the governor being appointed by the British crown. The Commonwealth is governed by a governor-general appointed by the crown, and a Parliament of two houses (Senate and House of Representatives) elected by the people. In all these governments, the ministry is responsible to the elected lawmakers.

The people of Australia, 5,000,000 in number, are chiefly of the English race, and their civilization measures up to the European standard. But large areas of the country are barren and uninhabitable, while in the northern portion the tropical heat is so great as to be ill suited to the development of the white race.

526. New Zealand lies far away in the South Pacific Ocean, in the south temperate zone, more than a thousand miles from Australia. It consists of two great islands, North Island and South Island, with a combined length of 1100 miles, and numerous smaller islands. It was discovered by a Dutch navigator in 1642 and was annexed to the British crown in 1840. The government of New Zealand is like that of other British self-governing colonies, with a governor appointed by Great Britain, a responsible ministry, and a General Assembly elected by the people.

Both in Australia and in New Zealand women vote on equal terms with men, and various other governmental changes and experiments have been made in advance of other nations. For example, our own method of secret voting was borrowed from the Australian ballot laws.

527. South Africa. — For more than a hundred years before its occupation by the British, Cape Colony in South Africa had been settled by Dutch immigrants, known as Boers (bōōrz), and a sprinkling of French Huguenots. It became a British colony in 1814 by purchase from the Netherlands (Holland).[1] As English settlers came in, many of the Dutch colonists abandoned the region and tramped northward, driving their flocks and herds, and settled in Natal (na-täl′). When in 1844 the British annexed Natal the Boers moved again and settled in what is known as the Orange Free State, and still later many of them crossed the Vaal (väl) River and made their home in the Transvaal′. Even the Transvaal was annexed by the British (1877) after putting down a serious uprising of the black natives.

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[1] Since 1806, however, a British army had occupied the Cape, as a result of the war with Napoleon, who controlled Holland.

At length the Boers, weary of these constant encroachments of the British, rebelled against them and defeated them in a vigorous short war, 1880–1881. Mr. Gladstone had just come into power in Great Britain, and, believing the Boers in the right, made treaties with them granting them self-government but retaining a general British protectorate over the country.

For many years South Africa had been noted for its gold and diamond mines. In the eighties rich deposits of gold were found in the Transvaal. The result was that great numbers of foreigners, chiefly Englishmen, rushed in. The Dutch farmers were greatly disturbed by attempts to overthrow their government. They declared war against Great Britain, and hence followed the Second Boer War, 1899–1902. The Transvaal Boers, joined by their brethren of the Orange Free State, proved to be heroic fighters. The British conquered only after a most desperate struggle; nearly half a million men were sent into the field.

Both the Transvaal and the Orange Free State were then annexed to the British crown, but the treatment of the conquered Boers was generous and conciliatory. They were granted a large measure of self-government and money was given them to restock their farms and rebuild their homes.

In 1909 a federal Union of South Africa was formed under the British government. It is composed of four provinces — Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Orange Free State, and the Transvaal. There is an elected parliament of two houses, a responsible ministry, and a governor-general. That the Boers have become reconciled to their position in the British Empire is indicated by

Memorial to Cecil J. Rhodes, Builder of British Africa

On Table Mountain, near Cape Town. Much of the African territory now included in the British Empire was acquired through the patriotic labors of Cecil J. Rhodes (1853–1902), who devoted his life to furthering the interests of his mother country in Africa. He left a fortune, acquired in the South African diamond mines, to found the Rhodes scholarships at Oxford University, enabling young men from various countries, including the United States, to pursue advanced studies in England.

the fact that General Botha, one of the leading Boer commanders in the last Boer War, became the first premier of the new federal government in South Africa.

528. Egypt and Other African Territories. — For a long period Egypt was a nominal possession of Turkey, though the sultan of Turkey had little or no control over the khedive (ke-dēv′) of Egypt. The people were burdened with grinding taxes, but the reckless khedive, Ismail (ĭs-mä-ēl′), could not keep his expenses within his income. He sold his interest in the Suez Canal (sec. 516). He borrowed money on all sides until, in 1875, his country was bankrupt, with a debt of nearly half a billion dollars. Thereupon France and Great Britain stepped in to protect their interests, each sending a fleet to Alexandria.

At length the Egyptians showed resentment. France withdrew, but Great Britain quelled the uprising and took control of the country (1882). The British government then announced that it would withdraw from Egypt as soon as the condition of the country would permit. During the World War (1914–1918) the British increased their authority and announced a full protectorate over Egypt. But the great unrest and anti-British feeling among the Egyptians led the British later to agree to withdraw and leave them to govern themselves (sec. 609).

Not for hundreds of years had the Egyptians been so prosperous as since the British took control of their country. The system of taxation was reformed and the people were convinced that their rights would be respected.[1]

In addition to South Africa and Egypt, Great Britain had by 1914 acquired several other extensive possessions in the Dark Continent. Most of these are "protectorates" or "spheres of influence." Among them the most important are the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan′, comprising the upper basin of the Nile; British East Africa, south of the Sudan; Rhodesia (rō-dē′zhĭ-a), which lies north of the Transvaal; Somaliland (sō̍-mä′lē̍-lănd), east of Abyssin′ia; and Nigeria (nī-jē′rĭ-a), on the western coast.

One of the most important world facts in recent modern history is the parceling out and occupation of the great continent of Africa by the European powers (map facing p. 581). Only two spots — Abyssinia on the east and Liberia on the west — remained independent of European control.

529. The Dominion of Canada. — The most important of all British colonial possessions is Canada. After winning from the French the great valley of the St. Lawrence (sec. 370) Great Britain set about establishing her government over the whole territory. The statesman who won Canada for Great Britain was William Pitt, and it was his son, William Pitt the younger, who in 1791 divided the country into Upper and Lower Canada (Ontario and Quebec) and gave to each a governor, a council, and an elected assembly. Just fifty years later (1841) the two Canadas were reunited with a single bicameral parliament.

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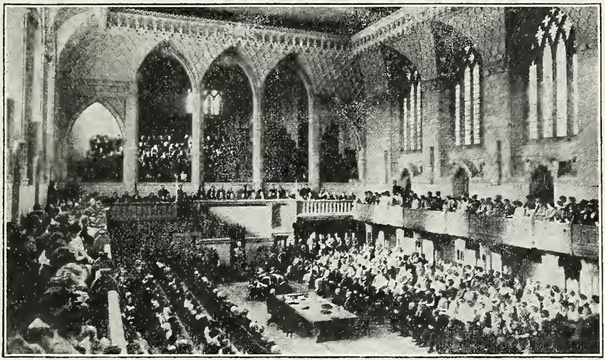
[1] A native Egyptian said to the writer that when the British took control the people were so astonished that they were no longer to be ground down and exploited as usual that it took some years for them to realize the truth.



CANADIAN SENATE CHAMBER, OTTAWA

The new parliament building, completed in 1920, takes the place of the former structure which was destroyed by fire in 1916. The parliament, which includes French as well as English speaking members, is addressed in both languages.

The greatest year in the history of Canada was 1867. In that year the British Parliament in London passed the British North America Act creating the Dominion of Canada. The act displayed a fine confidence in the allegiance and good will of the Canadians. George III had tried to keep the American colonies apart. The act of 1867 had its origin in the efforts of several Canadian leaders who had been trying to bring about a federal union. At first the dominion was composed of but four provinces — Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. Manitoba joined the union in 1870, British Columbia the following year, and other provinces since then. Newfoundland refused to join and still remains outside the dominion.

The government of Canada resembles those of Australia and

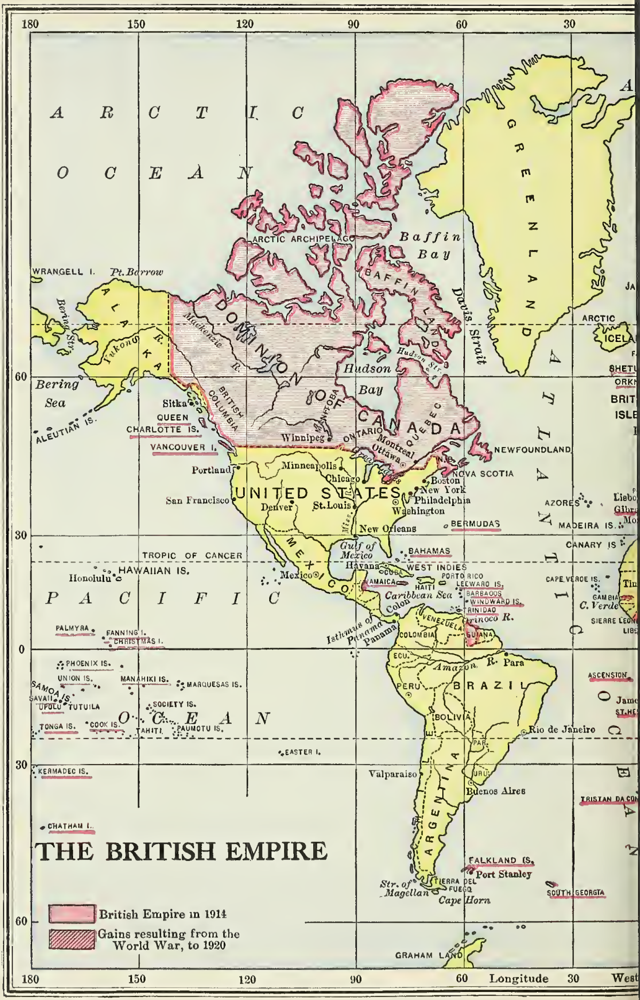
South Africa, which we have already noticed; they were copied from it, to some extent. The governor-general, sent out from Great Britain, has as little power as the king of Great Britain. Parliament consists of two houses, a Senate whose members are appointed by the Dominion government for life, and a House of Commons, elected by the people for five years, unless sooner dissolved. The leader of the majority party in the House of Commons becomes the premier, who, with his cabinet, exercises about the same power as the premier and cabinet in Great Britain. Each of the provinces has its own local government, with less power, however, than that of our states.

IV. Close of the Victorian Era; Later Events

530. Victoria, Edward VII, George V. — The reign of Queen Victoria (1837–1901) was the longest in European history except those of Louis XIV of France and Francis Joseph of Austria. It was a period of wonderful progress in literature, in science, and in industrial growth, and above all in commerce. The Scotch writers Burns and Scott belong to an earlier period, but the Victorian Age includes the English poets Browning and Tennyson, the novelists Dickens and Thackeray, and the scientist Charles Darwin, who propounded the theory of evolution.

The queen was not, like Queen Elizabeth, a woman of strong intellect, nor did she make any pretense of interfering with parliamentary government. In 1840 Victoria was married to her cousin Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. He was a man of wisdom and prudence who exerted much influence in the government. In 1887 was celebrated the queen's "golden jubilee," marking the fiftieth year of her reign, and ten years later her "diamond jubilee" marked the sixtieth year. These celebrations with their gorgeous pageants indicated the popularity of the monarchy and a pride of empire as nothing had ever done.

Queen Victoria, though not a statesman, was a woman of superior common sense and of unblemished character. She was



THE BRITISH EMPIRE

British Empire in 1914
Gains resulting from the World War, to 1920
180
150
120
90
60
30
Longitude
West
ARCTIC OCEAN
GREENLAND
ARCTIC ARCHIPELAGO
Baffin Bay
BAFFIN LAND
Davis Strait
Hudson Str.
Hudson Bay
DOMINION OF CANADA
WRANGELL I.
Pt. Barrow
ALASKA
Bering Str.
Yukon R.
Mackenzie R.
BRITISH COLUMBIA
MANITOBA
ONTARIO
QUEBEC
Bering Sea
ALEUTIAN IS.
Sitka
QUEEN CHARLOTTE IS.
VANCOUVER I.
Winnipeg
Montreal
Ottawa
Great Lakes
N.B.
NEWFOUNDLAND
NOVA SCOTIA
Portland
Minneapolis
Chicago
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Washington
UNITED STATES
San Francisco
Denver
St. Louis
Miss. R.
New Orleans
BERMUDAS
AZORES
Lisbo
Gibr
MADEIRA IS.
CANARY IS.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
TROPIC OF CANCER
HAWAIIAN IS.
Honolulu
MEXICO
Mexico
Gulf of Mexico
Havana
CUBA
BAHAMAS
WEST INDIES
JAMAICA
HAITI
PORTO RICO
LEEWARD IS.
BARBADOS
WINDWARD IS.
TRINIDAD
Caribbean Sea
Colon
CAPE VERDE IS.
GAMBIA
C. Verde
SIERRE LEON
LIBE
PACIFIC OCEAN
PALMYRA
FANNING I.
CHRISTMAS I.
Isthmus of Panama
Panama
VENEZUELA
Orinoco R.
COLOMBIA
GUIANA
ECU.
Amazon R.
Para
PERU
BRAZIL
BOLIVIA
PAR.
URU.
Rio de Janeiro
Valparaiso
Buenos Aires
ARGENTINA
CHILE
PHOENIX IS.
UNION IS.
MANAHIKI IS.
MARQUESAS IS.
SAMOA IS.
SAVAII
UPOLU
TUTUILA
SOCIETY IS.
TONGA IS.
COOK IS.
TAHITI
PAUMOTU IS.
EASTER I.
KERMADEC IS.
CHATHAM I.
ASCENSION
ST. HE
TRISTAN DA CU
FALKLAND IS.
Port Stanley
Str. of Magellan
TIERRA DEL FUEGO
Cape Horn
SOUTH GEORGIA
GRAHAM LAND
ARCTIC
ICELA
SHETL
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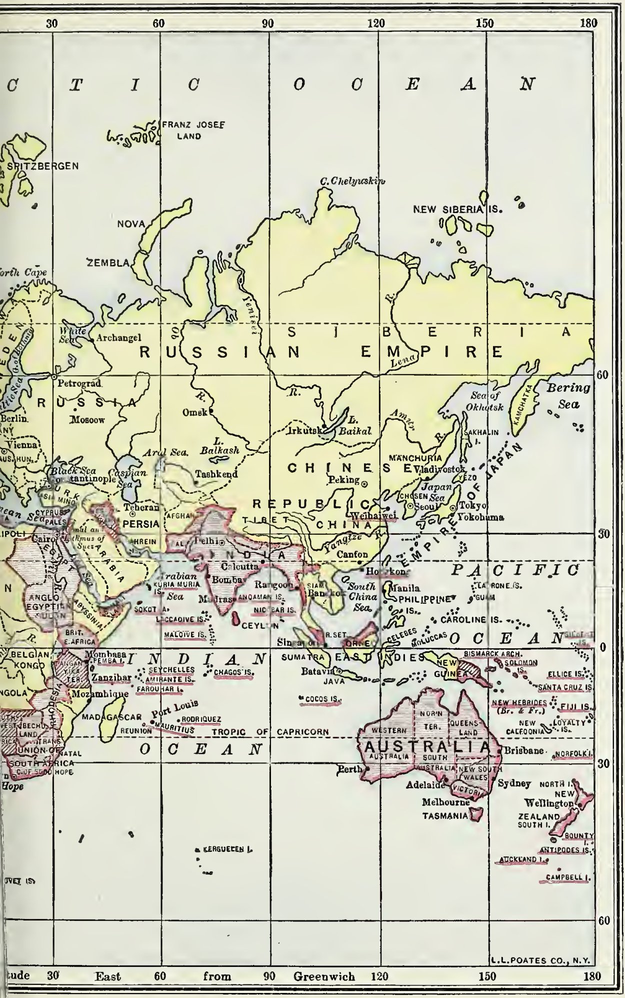
30
60
90
120
150
180
C T I C O C E A N
FRANZ JOSEF LAND
SPITZBERGEN
C. Chelyuskin
NEW SIBERIA IS.
NOVA
ZEMBLA
orth Cape
Yenisei
White Sea
Archangel
S I B E R I A
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
Lena
R.
60
Petrograd
R U S S I A
Moscow
Berlin
Vienna
Omsk
R.
L. Baikal
Irkutsk
Amur
Sea of Okhotsk
KAMCHATKA
Bering Sea
SAKHALIN I.
Aral Sea
L. Balkash
Tashkend
MANCHURIA
Vladivostok
EMPIRE OF JAPAN
YEZO
Black Sea
Constantinople
Caspian Sea
C H I N E S E
Peking
Japan Sea
CHOSEN
Seoul
Tokyo
Yokohama
TURKEY
CYPRUS
PALES.
Teheran
PERSIA
AFGHAN.
R E P U B L I C
TIBET
C H I N A
Weihaiwei
Cairo
EGYPT
Canal and Isthmus of Suez
ARABIA
BAHREIN
Delhi
I N D I A
Yangtze
Canton
30
Calcutta
Bombay
Hongkong
P A C I F I C
Arabian Sea
KURIA MURIA IS.
Rangoon
SIAM
Bangkok
South China Sea
Manila
LADRONE IS.
GUAM
ANGLO EGYPTIAN SUDAN
ABYSSINIA
Madras
ANDAMAN IS.
NICOBAR IS.
PHILIPPINE IS.
SOKOTRA
LACCADIVE IS.
CEYLON
CAROLINE IS.
MALDIVE IS.
STR. SET.
BORNEO
CELEBES
MOLUCCAS
O C E A N
BRIT. E. AFRICA
Singapore
0
BELGIAN KONGO
Mombasa
PEMBA I.
I N D I A N
SUMATRA
E A S T I N D I E S
NEW GUINEA
BISMARCK ARCH.
SOLOMON IS.
TANGANYIKA TER.
Zanzibar
SEYCHELLES
AMIRANTE IS.
CHAGOS IS.
Batavia
JAVA
ELLICE IS.
ANGOLA
FAROUHAR I.
SANTA CRUZ IS.
Mozambique
RHODESIA
COCOS IS.
NEW HEBRIDES (Br. & Fr.)
FIJI IS.
Port Louis
MADAGASCAR
RODRIQUEZ
NOR'N TER.
QUEENSLAND
NEW CALEDONIA
LOYALTY IS.
REUNION
MAURITIUS
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
WESTERN AUSTRALIA
BECHUANALAND
TRANSVAAL
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
NATAL
O C E A N
AUSTRALIA
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
Brisbane
NORFOLK I.
C. OF GOOD HOPE
Perth
NEW SOUTH WALES
30
Adelaide
VICTORIA
Sydney
NORTH I.
NEW ZEALAND
Wellington
Melbourne
TASMANIA
SOUTH I.
BOUNTY I.
ANTIPODES IS.
KERGUELEN I.
AUCKLAND I.
CAMPBELL I.
BOUVET IS.
60
L.L. POATES CO., N.Y.
tude 30 East 60 from 90 Greenwich 120 150 180

greatly loved by her people and was regarded by the whole world as a model of high-type womanhood. On her death she was succeeded by her eldest son, Edward VII (1901–1910), a man of sixty years. The new king was noted for his good manners and fine culture. He made various tours on the Continent, visiting his fellow-sovereigns, and his success in promoting friendly relations with neighboring nations led his people to call him "Edward the Peacemaker." On his death he was succeeded by his eldest living son, George V.

531. Labor Legislation; Old Age Pensions. — From 1905 to 1914 the Liberal party was in power.[1] The party enacted some important labor laws, socialistic in their tendencies. The two most important of these are the Workingman's Compensation Act of 1906, and the National Insurance Act of 1911.

Before the law of 1906 was enacted a workman injured while at work could recover damages only by a suit at law, too expensive for the majority to undertake. The new law made the employer responsible for accidents to the workman, except in cases of willful misconduct. Laws similar to this are found in many of our American states, as well as in British self-governing colonies.

The National Insurance Act provided compensation for workmen in time of disability and provided also for the prevention and cure of sickness. Wage earners receiving less than a certain amount were required to insure under this law. It was optional with others who had greater incomes. The funds were contributed partly by the state and partly by the employer and the workman. This act also attempted to insure against unemployment in certain trades, but in this feature it has not been wholly successful.

The Old Age Pension Law of 1909 is another of these paternal enactments intended to improve the condition of the poor. It provided that a man or woman having passed the age of seventy and having been a British subject for twenty years and a resident of Great Britain for twelve years might receive a pension from government funds, provided his income was less than 31½ pounds ($153) a year. The sum received as pension was very small, but was enough to keep the aged poor from starvation, and the law is one of the best enacted in recent years in any country.

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[1] The Conservatives won the election of 1895 and held power for ten years, the premiers being the Marquis of Salisbury (for the third time) and Mr. Arthur Balfour. The Liberal premiers after their return to power in 1905 were Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, and, after his death in 1908, Herbert Henry Asquith, who was succeeded in 1917 by David Lloyd George.

532. Lloyd George and the Budget of 1909. — In the Asquith cabinet David Lloyd George, a Welshman of great ability, was the secretary of the treasury, called in Great Britain the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Once a year this official sets forth to the House of Commons a "budget," in which he estimates the expenditures for the coming year and proposes the means by which the taxes are to be raised.

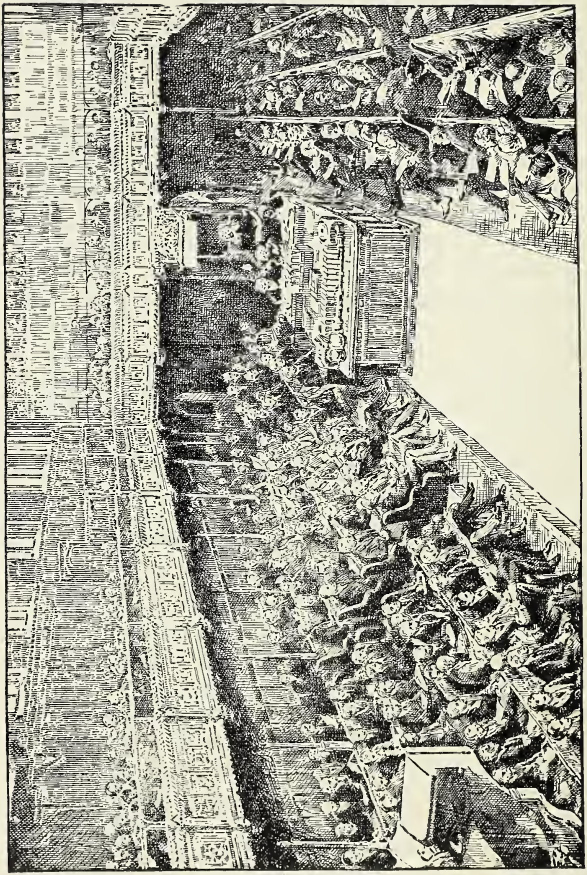
Owing to increases in the navy and to the old age pensions it was necessary to increase the revenue by a large amount. In his budget of 1909, therefore, Lloyd George proposed that the extra money be raised in such ways as to place the burden on the rich and not on the poor. It provided for a great increase in the income and inheritance taxes. One of his items, that which caused fiercest opposition, was a provision that twenty per cent of the increase of land values through the growth of the community must be paid to the government as tax. The bill awakened violent opposition in the House of Lords, the great majority of whose members were landowners on a large scale.

Many years had passed since the Lords had ventured to veto a budget sent up from the Commons. After its humiliating defeat in the reform of Parliament in 1832, the upper house, eclipsed by the Commons, remained in the background for sixty years. Then it ventured forth and defeated Gladstone's Home Rule Bill (sec. 521), the first measure of importance it dared to veto in more than half a century. Being sustained by the people in the next election, the Lords were emboldened to veto other measures (two education bills and others) and they seemed to have persuaded themselves that they were nearly if not fully as important in the government as the Commons. The House of Lords now ventured on a very serious step. It vetoed Lloyd George's budget, and in so doing it unwittingly prepared the way for its own downfall.

533. Criticism of the House of Lords. — The defeat of the Lloyd George budget by the upper house brought a new election in 1910. The Liberals again won and the budget was then accepted and passed by the Lords. But there were two other leading issues in this campaign. One was the Irish Home Rule question already noticed (sec. 522), and the other was a demand for reform of the House of Lords, a "mending or ending" of that august body of medieval dignitaries.

The British people are wonderfully lenient with their landed aristocracy, even fond of the system of caste, it may be said. "Every Englishman beneath the throne," said one of the nobility, "is a born lackey." From the great duke down to the lowest menial they are quite ready always to "bow to their betters." But while the upper classes hold the same position socially that they held in the Middle Ages, they have lost their power over the government. A few hundred years ago the sovereign controlled the government; but he was gradually forced to yield his power to the aristocracy, and the aristocracy in turn has been obliged to yield to the masses of the people.

In 1832 the Lords received a serious setback, but legally and theoretically they were still equal to the Commons, though in practice they were not. The people would not perhaps have objected to the continuance of this condition but for the twofold fact that the upper house was extremely nonprogressive and that it steadily acted with the Tory or Conservative party. In the last half century it had opposed the education bills, the abolition of the purchase of army offices, Irish Home Rule, and old age pensions. The last straw was the defeating of the Lloyd George budget. The issue was simple: Shall the laws of the land be dictated by an hereditary body representing 600 families, or by an elected body that represents 40,000,000 people?



House of Commons in Session, 1920

534. Parliament Act of 1911. — The Lords took alarm at the measure proposed by the Liberals, and sought to checkmate it by reforming their own house to make it more liberal. But Premier Asquith was inflexible. He secured the consent of the king to create new peers enough to force the passage of the bill if necessary through the upper house. The Lords yielded without the use of this extreme measure, and the Parliament Bill became a law in August, 1911.

This act took from the House of Lords all power to veto a money bill. Any other bill may become a law also without the consent of the Lords if it is passed at three successive sessions of the Commons and if a period of two years has elapsed since it was introduced.

The Parliament Act of 1911 thus reduced the House of Lords to an advisory body and a temporary check on the House of Commons, now clearly the sovereign governing body of the United Kingdom.[1] It took away from the upper house the prestige and power it had enjoyed since the fourteenth century and constituted the most important change of modern times in the British constitution.

By the same act the life of a Parliament was reduced from seven to five years, and it was provided that members of the Commons should be paid a salary of 400 pounds a year. Hitherto they had served without pay.

Questions and Topics. — I. What was the great life work of Sir Robert Peel? What were the corn laws and why were they repealed? Give an account of the early life of Gladstone and of Disraeli. What was the condition of the British educational system before the school law of 1870 was passed? What other reforms came that year and the next? Write a brief essay on the Suez Canal. Why did the Congress of Berlin curb Russia? Describe the reforms in Parliament in 1867 and 1884.

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[1] In the picture on the opposite page Lloyd George can be seen standing at his desk addressing the House. Opposite him sits Mr. Asquith, leader of the Liberals. Lady Astor, an American by birth and the first woman member, is seated at the end of the second bench on the right. The Speaker of the House sits on the raised dais in the center of the hall, in wig and gown. In front of the Speaker is the clerks' table, on which the mace always lies when Parliament is in session. This symbol of authority was made in 1649, altered in 1660, and has been in use in the House ever since. Though the total number of members may be 707, there are seats on the floor for only 476.

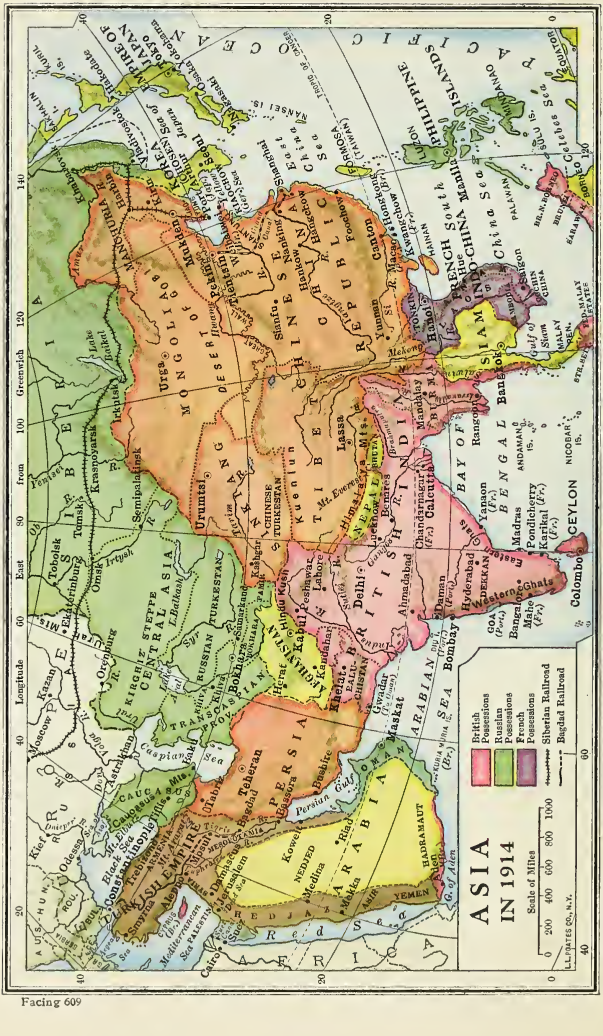
II. How did Ireland come to be subject to Great Britain? Write a brief paper on the Irish land question; on Mr. Gladstone and Home Rule. Do you think Ireland would be better off if independent of Great Britain? What is the latest phase of Home Rule? Why have the people of Ulster opposed it?

III. Tell of the extent of the British Empire in 1914. In what way has Great Britain been a civilizer? What is her colonial policy with regard to taxation? What can you tell of British India? of Australia and New Zealand? When and of whom did the British purchase Cape Colony? How did they secure other parts of South Africa? Describe the founding of the Union of South Africa. What does 1867 mean in Canadian history? Describe the government of Canada.

IV. What labor laws has Great Britain recently enacted? Describe the Old Age Pension Law. What do you think of Lloyd George's tax measures? Why was it desirable to degrade the House of Lords? What is the present power of the House of Commons?

Important Dates. — Great Indian Mutiny, 1857. Purchase of the Suez Canal, 1875. Discovery of gold in Australia, 1851. Commonwealth of Australia formed, January 1, 1901. The Boer War, 1899–1902. Formation of the Union of South Africa, 1909. Egypt comes under British control, 1882. Dominion of Canada created, 1867. Degrading of the House of Lords, 1911.

For Further Reading. — Several good histories of England should be in every high school library. Ransome's *Advanced History of England from the Earliest Times to the Present Day* (1911) is interestingly written. Cross's *History of England and Great Britain* is more scholarly but less readable than Ransome's. It deals with the great questions of the present century, bringing the narrative down to 1914. Cheyney's *Introduction to the Industrial and Social History of England* furnishes a very excellent brief account of the industrial and social side of English history. See also Denning, *Mosaics from India;* Jose, *The Growth of the Empire;* Keltie, *Africa.*


ASIA IN 1914
Scale of Miles
0 200 400 600 800 1000
British Possessions
Russian Possessions
French Possessions
Siberian Railroad
Bagdad Railroad
Longitude East from Greenwich
L.L. POATES CO., N.Y.
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
SIBERIA
CENTRAL ASIA
KIRGHIZ STEPPE
RUSSIAN TURKESTAN
TRANS CASPIAN PROV.
KHIVA
BOKHARA
CAUCASUS
TURKISH EMPIRE
ARMENIA
MESOPOTAMIA
PERSIA
AFGHANISTAN
BALUCHISTAN
ARABIA
NEDJED
HEDJAZ
YEMEN
ASIR
HADRAMAUT
OMAN
BRITISH INDIA
NEPAL
BHUTAN
BURMA
CEYLON
SIAM
FRENCH INDO-CHINA
TONKIN
CAMBODIA
COCHIN CHINA
MALAY PEN.
FED. MALAY STATES
STR. SETTLEMENTS
CHINESE REPUBLIC
MONGOLIA
DESERT of GOBI
SINKIANG
CHINESE TURKESTAN
TIBET
MANCHURIA
KOREA (CHOSEN)
EMPIRE OF JAPAN
FORMOSA (TAIWAN)
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
LUZON
MINDANAO
PALAWAN
SULU IS.
BORNEO
BR. N. BORNEO
BRUNEI
SARAWAK
HAINAN
ANDAMAN IS.
NICOBAR IS.
KURIA MURIA IS. (Br.)
CYPRUS (Br.)
PALESTINE
SAKHALIN
KURIL IS.
NANSEI IS.
Moscow
Kazan
Kief
Odessa
Astrakhan
Orenburg
Ekaterinburg
Tobolsk
Omsk
Tomsk
Semipalatinsk
Krasnoyarsk
Irkutsk
Khabarovsk
Vladivostok
Harbin
Kirin
Mukden
Port Arthur (Jap.)
Seoul
Hakodate
Tokyo
Yokohama
Osaka
Nagasaki
Peking
Tientsin
Weihaiwei (Br.)
Kiaochow (Ger.)
Shanghai
Nanking
Hankow
Hangchow
Foochow
Canton
Hongkong (Br.)
Macao (Port.)
Kwangchow (Fr.)
Yunnan
Sianfu
Urga
Urumtsi
Kashgar
Lassa
Mt. Everest
Himalaya Mts.
Kuenlun
Lucknow
Benares
Delhi
Lahore
Peshawar
Kabul
Kandahar
Herat
Khelat
Gwadar (To Oman)
Maskat
Calcutta
Chandarnagar (Fr.)
Yanaon (Fr.)
Madras
Pondicherry (Fr.)
Karikal (Fr.)
Colombo
Hyderabad
DEKKAN
Western Ghats
Eastern Ghats
Bangalore
Mahe (Fr.)
GOA (Port.)
Bombay
DIU (Port.)
Daman (Port.)
Ahmadabad
Mandalay
Rangoon
Bangkok
Saigon
Hue
Hanoi
Manila
Samarkand
Bokhara
Khiva
Tashkent
Tiflis
Baku
Tabriz
Teheran
Bagdad
Bassora
Bushire
Mosul
Aleppo
Damascus
Jerusalem
Trebizond
Smyrna
Constantinople
Suez
Cairo
Mekka
Medina
Riad
Kowelt
Aden (Br.)
Mt. Ararat
Mt. Elburz
Caucasus Mts.
Ural Mts.
Pamir
Hindu Kush
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Sea of Azof
Mediterranean Sea
Aegean Sea
Red Sea
Dead Sea
Persian Gulf
Arabian Sea
Bay of Bengal
G. of Aden
Gulf of Siam
South China Sea
East China Sea
Yellow Sea
Sea of Japan
Celebes Sea
Sulu Sea
Lake Baikal
L. Balkash
Lake Aral
PACIFIC OCEAN
AFRICA
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
Amur
Yenisei
Ob
Irtysh
Ural R.
Volga
Don
Dnieper
Syr
Amu
Tarim
Hwang
Yangtze
Si
Mekong
Salwin
Irawadi
Brahmaputra
Ganges
Indus
Sutlej
Tigris
Euphrates
Great Wall
Suez Canal
AUS.-HUN.
ROU.
BUL.
SERBIA
GR.
40
20
0
60
80
100
120
140

Facing 609

CHAPTER XLIII

RUSSIA AND THE BALKANS

I. RUSSIA, THE LEADING SLAV NATION

535. **Russian Expansion.** — Next to the Teutonic peoples who occupy most of western Europe, the Slavic peoples must be ranked as the largest subdivision of the Indo-European family (sec. 12). The great Slav nation is Russia; but there are many millions of non-Slav peoples in the Russian dominions (Tartars, Jews, and others) and there are many Slavs outside of Russia (Serbs, Bohemians, Poles, and others).

After the time of Peter the Great (sec. 362) Russia expanded steadily in various directions. Peter acquired the Baltic provinces and Catherine II the greater part of Poland. The regions north and east of the Black Sea and east of the Caspian Sea were won by means of long wars. Siberia was won by Russia from savage Tartar tribes in the seventeenth century. It is larger than Europe, comprising all of northern Asia from the Ural Mountains to the Bering Sea, and from the Amur River to the Arctic Ocean. Siberia contains mineral wealth of unknown value. In its western and southern parts are extensive timber and grazing and farming tracts, but in the far north the winters are so severe as to make the country scarcely habitable. The completion of the Siberian Railway, 5000 miles in length, gave Russia an outlet to the Pacific Ocean and greatly facilitated the colonization of Siberia. For many years a great object of Russia was to secure control of Constantinople and the outlet of the Black Sea, but through the jealousy of other nations, especially England, she was not able to do so.

The area of the Russian Empire in 1914 was about 8,700,000 square miles. It rivaled the British Empire in extent and was far more compact. The population was 175,000,000, about two thirds of whom were Russian Slavs and about five sixths of whom lived in Europe.

536. The Government and the Bureaucracy. — Russia before 1905 was an absolute monarchy. There was no lawmaking body; the will of the tsar was the law of the land.

TERMINAL OF THE SIBERIAN RAILWAY, VLADIVOSTOK

The Siberian railroad was built by the government (1891–1905) with money raised chiefly by issuing bonds to foreign investors.

But it must not be inferred that the tsar governed arbitrarily all parts of the mighty empire. He was by no means free; he was greatly dependent on the bureaucracy, an immense governmental machine with its 400,000 officials or bureaucrats. This army of officials, recruited chiefly from the nobility and holding office for life, kept running the colossal machinery of the empire, and their will may be said to have constituted a sort of public opinion of Russia. Against the will of this class the tsar had little power to prevail, and his usual course was to act in harmony with it. The bureaucrats were haughty and harsh in their attitude toward the common people. Jews, Poles, and other classes were excluded from their ranks.

537. The Tsars of the Last Century. — Tsar Nicholas I (1825–1855) who ruled his people with a rod of iron, was followed by his son, Alexander II (1855–1881), a man of different temperament. Alexander was humane; he felt deeply for the miserable serfs, of whom there were more than forty million in his dominions. In 1861 he issued his famous decree (ukase) emancipating the serfs from their bondage. This was one of the greatest events in the history of Russia. The Russian serfs numbered about ten times as many as the slaves freed by our Civil War.

By this decree of the tsar the serfs were permitted to buy their lands from the landlords with money advanced in long-time loans by the government, or to pay an annual rent. The majority bought not as individuals, but as villages. Alexander had hoped that this act would bring prosperity and happiness to the downtrodden serfs, but such a result was not fully realized. One reason is that they were obliged to pay their greedy landlords much more for their land than it was worth, and another is that they were not permitted to buy enough land to support themselves. They were obliged therefore to rent, on the hardest terms, lands remaining to their former masters. Moreover, the taxes were excessive, and as one writer put it, " Life in a Russian village is slow death of creatures incessantly hungry."

Alexander II not only emancipated the serfs, he also introduced local assemblies in the provinces, established a jury system, and granted more freedom to the press than it had ever enjoyed before. But with all his liberalism there was a radical, vicious element that he could not please. This element formed a secret society called Nihilists, who assassinated the tsar on the very day before he intended to grant a constitution to Russia. The crime was one to be compared with the assassination of Julius Caesar or of Abraham Lincoln.

The next tsar, Alexander III (1881–1894) reverted to the illiberal policy of his grandfather Nicholas and destroyed much of the good that his father had accomplished. The last of the tsars, Nicholas II (1894–1917), followed the repressive policy of his father, Alexander III, for ten years or more after ascending the throne, but later became somewhat more liberal.

538. The Russian Peasant. — The great majority of the Russian people are of the peasant class, but so great is the extent of the country that the manner of life in one section is often wholly unlike that of some far distant section. All Russia is often spoken of as two distinct worlds — New Russia, comprising the cities and larger towns with their veneer of western civilization, and their affected urbanity; and Old Russia, which, in spite of the influence of Peter the Great, is still Asiatic in many of its ways.

To the second class, the Old Russians, the great majority of the peasants belong. Millions of them in 1914 had never seen a railroad or a city. Few of them could read and write. They cultivated their little farms in a crude and primitive fashion and while many of them could raise more than they needed for their own use, the want of railroads made it very difficult for them to find a market for their surplus products. The result was that they found it almost impossible to pay their taxes.

The peasants lived in wooden houses, which had to be renewed every fifty or sixty years; ancient landmarks like the stone castles of western Europe are unknown. The position of woman in the home was too often not what it should be. If the husband beat his wife the neighbors said he was teaching her to respect him. In some parts of Russia were still found "great families," that is, assemblies of several related families under one roof. The oldest man in a great family had control of the labor and the goods of all the rest and represented them at the rural assembly.

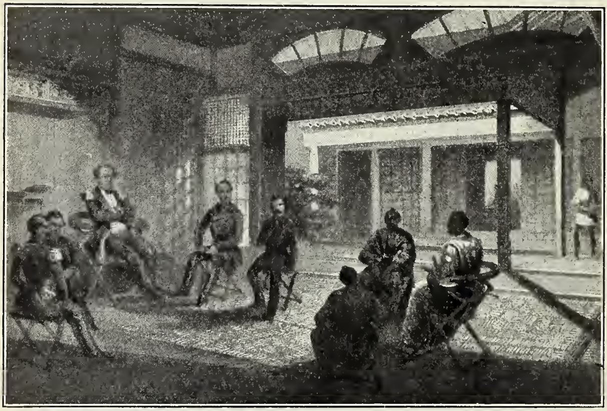
There were many large estates in Russia, and on each one might be found one or more flour mills. To these the peasants came from far and near with their grain and paid for the grinding with toll of the finished product. Steam and gasoline engines were unknown in large sections of the country and little water power was available, owing to the flatness of the land. The flour mills were turned by windmills, which form a striking feature of the landscape. Many a large landholder who spent half the year in the capital went back to his estate to spend the summer among the peasants, donning the peasant garb and living and working as one of them. This he did not because of necessity but because of a love for the country life of Old Russia, the life of his ancestors.

COSSACKS OF SOUTHERN RUSSIA

The Cossacks, "a free, wild people, accustomed to live in the saddle," are of mixed race. They number about 3,000,000. Many served as cavalrymen in the tsar's army.

539. Russo-Japanese Rivalry. — One of the great wars of modern times, in magnitude and in results, was that between Russia and Japan, 1904–1905. The quarrel that brought it was a hundred years old. It arose from a steady encroachment of Russia on the Far East, which inspired a dread in the Japanese that the mighty Slav empire meant to swallow their island kingdom. In 1798 Russia attempted to seize certain Japanese islands, and never thereafter were the Japanese free from fear of this "Wild Eagle of the North."

Japan for ages had been a half-dormant nation. Like China it was a Mongolian land, proud and self-satisfied with its ancient civilization. In 1854 Commodore M. C. Perry, of the American navy, succeeded in making a treaty with Japan by which some of her ports were opened to foreign trade. This beginning was followed quickly by an awakening of the people of the "Land of the Rising Sun." The reformation of 1868 was a veritable revolution. Japan absorbed the best of modern civilization and rose to the position of a first-class power with a rapidity unknown before in history. Above all things Japan built up an army and a navy with an eye steadily fixed on the Russian menace. These were



Conference between Perry and the Japanese Shogun

From a drawing made by the official artist of the expedition. The negotiations brought about the opening of Japan to western civilization. The shogun was the military commander of Japan and represented the emperor.

tested in a short war with China in 1894–1895, over rival claims on Kore′a. Japan won easily and exacted a large indemnity and the cession of Port Arthur and the island of Formosa from her huge Mongolian neighbor.

But the European powers had their own designs on China, and three of them, France, Germany, and Russia, jointly demanded that the Japanese give up Port Arthur. Japan could do nothing but comply, but she did so resentfully, and a few years later her resentment was heightened when Russia occupied Port Arthur as a terminus for her Siberian railway. A little later Russia occupied Manchuria, a great sparsely-settled province of northeastern China, and even threatened Korea, just across the narrow sea from Japan. The Japanese were now convinced that their very independence was menaced and they determined to grapple with their gigantic neighbor unless he was willing to withdraw from Manchuria.

540. The Russo-Japanese War, 1904–1905. — After long and fruitless negotiations the war began. It proved a surprise to the world. According to neutral opinion, Japan, with one sixtieth of the area of Russia and little more than one fourth of the population, had small chance of success. But the " little brown men " proved marvelous fighters. Moreover, Japan was almost as well prepared for war as Prussia had been in 1870, while the Russian army and navy were honeycombed with corruption and " graft."

Two battles of great magnitude were fought on land — the battle of Liaoyang (lē-ou′yäng′), September, 1904, and the battle of Mukden (mook-dĕn′), March, 1905. Both proved signal victories for the Japanese. The battle of Mukden was one of the greatest in history. It covered fourteen days. O′yama was the Japanese commander. The Russians lost 100,000 men. Meantime the Japanese after a siege of seven months had captured Port Arthur (January 1, 1905); and in May, Admiral Togo defeated and annihilated the Russian fleet in a tremendous naval battle in the Sea of Japan.

From these deadly blows Russia could not recover, and both nations agreed to the suggestion of President Roosevelt of the United States to have a peace conference.

The conference was held at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, in August, 1905. The terms of peace provided that Japan continue her control of Korea, that she be given the southern half of Sakhalin (sȧ-kȧ-lyēn′) Island, and that Russia cede to Japan her lease of the Liaotung (lē-ou′to͞ong′) peninsula, which included Port Arthur, and more than 700 miles of the Port Arthur railroad. Russia also agreed to evacuate Manchuria.

The great importance of this war lies in the fact that it put a decided check on the movement of the European powers toward occupying and controlling the Far East as they had done in Africa. The war seems to have insured the independent future development of the yellow races of the East and it proved to the world that there is one non-Caucasian nation that must be ranked in the first class.

541. **Russianizing the Provinces.** — Among the many non-Russian peoples within the Russian Empire, were the Poles of Poland, the Finns of Finland, and several peoples of the Baltic provinces. When these provinces were acquired the tsar entered into a solemn compact that they should not be disturbed in the use of their respective languages, their customs and religion. The compact was ruthlessly violated. About the middle of the nineteenth century the policy of Russianizing the non-Russian people was begun.

A revolt in Poland in 1863 was followed by severe repressive measures. The Polish language was forbidden in schools and courts and the Russian language was substituted. The Roman Catholic religion to which the Poles adhered was harassed in every way. But in spite of all the repressive measures the Poles continued to use their own language and remained true to their religion.

The people of the Baltic provinces were Esthonians, Letts, and Lithuanians, with a few Germans and Poles and some Russians.

Most of them were Protestants or Roman Catholics. Here also the Russian government, beginning in 1867, attempted to convert the people to the Greek church and to suppress the native languages. As the people included several different races, the Russian measures, often attended with inhuman violence, were more successful than in Poland, where the whole community was homogeneous.

Finland is a great stretch of country north of Petrograd and east of the Gulf of Bothnia, noted for its incomparable granite. It formerly belonged to Sweden, but came into the possession of the Russian tsar in 1809. Practically all the people were Finns (seven eighths) and Swedes (one eighth). In 1850 a decree of the tsar made the use of the Russian language compulsory, but it was not enforced. The Finns are an industrious, intelligent people, and, except that they clung to their language and customs, they gave no cause for offense. But Tsar Nicholas in 1900 made a determined effort to Russianize the Finns. He suppressed their institutions and robbed them of their liberties.

After the Russo-Japanese war, however, while Russia was in a weakened condition and in the throes of internal discord, the Finns seized the opportunity and demanded a restoration of their liberties. The tsar acceded to their demand and allowed the Finns local self-government under a liberal constitution, giving men and women alike the right to vote and hold office.

542. The Russian Uprising of 1905. — The first decade of the twentieth century witnessed a belated revolution in despotic Russia. It was only partly successful, but it was an entering wedge.

The war with Japan revealed widespread corruption in Russian official life. It was found that high officials had stolen large sums of money intended to supply the army, and even goods sent to the Red Cross were openly sold in Moscow. Great numbers of Russian people had long known the need of reform. While the war was in progress (November, 1904) a notable meeting of leading men was held at the Russian capital (Petrograd), then known as St. Petersburg. It urged reforms on the government that a revolution might be averted, such reforms as freedom of speech and of the press, and equal civil rights.

In January, 1905, a great crowd assembled unarmed in the streets of St. Petersburg for the purpose of carrying to the tsar a petition for reform. But the Cossacks — Russian cavalry — were ordered to fire on the helpless people and many were slain. This tragedy, exaggerated as the news spread, caused an agitation for reform so widespread and so threatening that the tsar yielded and agreed to summon a Duma (dōō'mä), or national assembly. But when later he decreed that its duties would be only advisory and not legislative, and that workingmen and professional men were to be excluded from the ballot, the people again became excited. A general strike was the result. Nearly all the railroads of the empire were tied up, thousands of factories and stores were closed, cities were left in darkness, and the wheels of industry came to a standstill.

On this account and because of the great number of assassinations of policemen and higher officials the tsar again yielded; he issued somewhat more liberal election laws and promised the Duma some real power.

The Duma elected was composed largely of radicals determined on revolutionary reforms. It set forth its views in an address to the throne, demanding among other things control over the executive and a ministry responsible to itself. Russia was not ready for such an innovation and henceforth there was no harmony between the government and the newly-elected body. The Duma was dissolved in July and a call was given out for a second Duma, which was to meet in the spring of 1907.

The interval was a season of disorder and anarchy. Many uprisings throughout the land were put down in a sea of blood. The second Duma was as radical as the first. After an existence of a little more than three months it too was dissolved. The election laws were then so changed that the third Duma elected in 1907, and the fourth, in 1912, were composed chiefly of great landholders who were in sympathy with the tsar.

Thus Russia was in an unstable condition, ripe for revolution, when it entered the World War of 1914, to be discussed in later chapters.

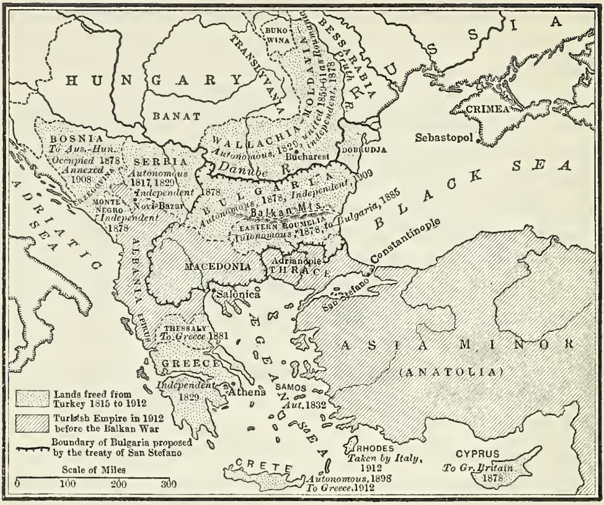
II. TURKEY AND THE BALKANS

543. **Turkey in Europe.** — The most significant fact in connection with the Near East in the past three hundred years is the steady loss of Turkish territory and power in Europe. During the fifteenth century the "unspeakable Turk" overran and occupied a very large portion of southeastern Europe. Macedonia, Greece, the great region of the Balkan Mountains and the lower Danube fell beneath the ravages of the Mohammedan hordes from Asia. Christian Europe was frightened. But after a fearful defeat at Vienna in 1529 and another on the sea at Lepanto in 1571 (sec. 275) the Turks were checked. In the eighteenth century they began to lose ground, and their power has steadily declined, and long ago they would have been driven from European soil but for the mutual jealousies of the great powers.

The peoples subdued by the Turks or Ot′tomans (so called from the name of an early sultan) were chiefly Christians of the Orthodox Greek faith. For centuries they were subjected to the utmost cruelties, often being massacred by thousands by their fanatical masters. The massacres were accompanied by revolts and interventions resulting usually in the curbing of Ottoman power.

The Ottoman Empire was an absolute despotism, but in 1879 a party known as "Young Turkey" rose against the government and demanded a constitution. They succeeded for a time in modifying the power of the sultan, but Abdul-Hamid (äb-dŏŏl-hä-mēd′) coming to the throne soon crushed every effort of the reformers and continued to rule the country with an iron hand. So it went on until 1909, when another uprising proved more successful. Abdul-Hamid was dethroned and sent into retirement and Turkey became a constitutional state.

544. **The Christian States of the Balkans.** — When the Turks came into Europe they did not come in such numbers as to colonize


HUNGARY
BANAT
TRANSYLVANIA
BUKOWINA
MOLDAVIA
BESSARABIA
Pruth R.
RUSSIA
CRIMEA
Sebastopol
BLACK SEA
WALLACHIA
Autonomous, 1829, united 1859-61 as Roumania, Independent, 1878
Bucharest
Danube R.
DOBRUDJA
BULGARIA
Autonomous, 1878, Independent, 1909
Balkan Mts.
EASTERN ROUMELIA
Autonomous, 1878, to Bulgaria, 1885
BOSNIA
To Aus.-Hun.
Occupied 1878
Annexed 1908
HERZEGOVINA
SERBIA
Autonomous 1817, 1829
Independent 1878
MONTENEGRO
Independent 1878
Novi Bazar
ADRIATIC SEA
ALBANIA
EPIRUS
MACEDONIA
Adrianople
THRACE
Constantinople
San Stefano
Salonica
THESSALY
To Greece 1881
GREECE
Independent 1829
Athens
AEGEAN SEA
SAMOS
Aut. 1832
ASIA MINOR
(ANATOLIA)
RHODES
Taken by Italy, 1912
CYPRUS
To Gr. Britain 1878
CRETE
Autonomous, 1898
To Greece, 1912
Lands freed from Turkey 1815 to 1912
Turkish Empire in 1912 before the Balkan War
Boundary of Bulgaria proposed by the treaty of San Stefano
Scale of Miles
0
100
200
300

Decline of Turkish Power from 1815 to 1912

For decline prior to 1815 and after 1912 see maps facing page 317, following page 440 on page 624, and following page 706.

all the lands they conquered. Like the ancient Romans with their provinces, or the British in India, they held the native peoples in subjection and made no attempt to replace them.

The chief races thus conquered by the Turks were the Greeks, the Roumanians north of the Danube, the Serbs in the northwest, the Bulgarians south of the Danube, and the Alba′nians in the west on the shore of the Adriatic. These peoples differed from one another in language and customs and had little in common except their religion. Many of the Albanians, however, and some Bulgarians and others were converted to Mohammedanism.

Within the first half of the nineteenth century the Greeks regained their independence (sec. 441) and at the same time some measure of self-government was granted to Serbia and the Roumanian provinces. A few years later the tsar of Russia proposed to Great Britain that the possessions of the sultan be divided up among the powers, referring to the sultan as " the sick man of Europe." It was known that Turkish rule was cruel and oppressive, but Great Britain had come to regard Russia with deep suspicion, as a menace to her Indian possessions. When, therefore, Russia had a quarrel with Turkey, 1854–1856, Great Britain, joined by France and Sardinia, took the side of the Turks and prevented the disruption of the Ottoman Empire. This war is known as the Crimean War, having taken its name from the peninsula of Crimea in the Black Sea, where much of the fighting was done. This was the first European war since the fall of Napoleon at Waterloo. It brought meager results aside from giving a new lease of life to the Turkish power in Europe.

545. **Turkish Massacres; Congress of Berlin.** — What is known as the Eastern Question (what should be done with the Ottoman Empire) had long troubled Europe. The Turk was an intruder and a disturber among the nations of Europe. His rightful home was Asia. The fanatical religion of the Turks led them to kill non-Mohammedan people whenever possible and convenient to do so. They had promised, it is true, at the close of the Crimean War, to refrain from atrocities; but their word was worthless.

Goaded to revolt by their oppressors, the Serbs and Bulgarians made a dash for independence in 1875. This brought upon them the merciless vengeance of the fanatical Turks, and more than 30,000, chiefly Bulgarians, were massacred and 12,000 women were dragged off into slavery. Europe stood aghast at this latest horror, but no nation except Russia lifted a finger to prevent it.

In defense of the Balkan Christians Russia declared war on Turkey (1877) and within a year had won a brilliant victory. But the ensuing peace of San Stefano was, as we have seen, upset by the Congress of Berlin (sec. 516). The decisions of this congress are counted among the most shameful diplomatic pro-

PAINTED GATEWAY IN FRONT OF A CHURCH IN ROUMANIA

American Red Cross official photograph. The mud and stone gateway and the religious paintings on it are centuries old.

ceedings in recent European history. The congress insured a new lease of life to the Ottoman Empire and deliberately handed back to the mercy of the Turks large numbers of people that Russia had rescued. Bismarck presided at the congress, but its chief inspirer was Disraeli, the British premier.[1] Its main provisions were as follows:

1. It made Serbia and Roumania, which had enjoyed self-government before, independent kingdoms; but the part of Roumania east of the Pruth River (southern Bessarabia, which had been ceded by Russia in 1856), was now ceded to Russia.

2. Macedonia (which was to have been Bulgarian under the treaty of San Stefano) was passed back to Turkey.

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[1] It must not be inferred that all the British people were deaf to the cries of distress from the Balkans. Gladstone denounced bitterly the attitude of his country on this matter, and his following was so great that he soon overthrew Disraeli and became premier.

3. Eastern Roumelia, the southern portion of Bulgaria, was put under Turkish control, but was to have a Christian governor, while Bulgaria proper was given home rule but remained tributary to Turkey. This arrangement was soon defeated, however; the people of Eastern Roumelia revolted and joined Bulgaria, which became practically independent.

4. The congress provided that Greece should secure Thessaly and a portion of Epirus, and this was accomplished a few years later.

5. Bosnia (bŏz′nĭ-a) and Herzegovina (hĕr-tsĕ-go-vē′nä), though they remained theoretically Turkish provinces, were turned over to Austria-Hungary to administer. In 1908, they were definitely annexed by that country.

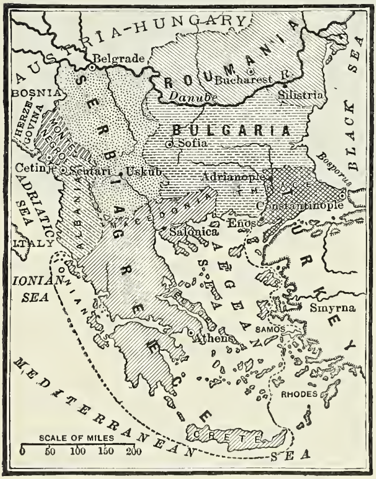
546. The Balkan Wars, 1912–1913. — The Congress of Berlin did not end the Turkish atrocities in the Balkan region. The minor states, despairing of protection from the Great Powers, determined, after ages of oppression, to take matters into their own hands. Carefully they marshaled their military strength and in 1912 the hour struck. Four of them — Serbia, Bulgaria, Greece, and Montenegro — declared war on Turkey with the purpose of driving the Turks out of Europe.

The Turkish army was badly equipped. The allied armies marched into Macedonia and Thrace and won victory after victory with amazing speed. The following spring, Adrianople, the sacred Moslem city, was forced to surrender to a Bulgarian army, aided by Serbs. Even Constantinople was threatened, when the Great Powers intervened and brought about terms of peace.

Austria had looked on with a greedy eye with the evident purpose of securing for herself a large part of the conquered territory; but Germany and Great Britain vetoed her plans and thus no doubt averted a general European war.

By the terms of peace, signed in London in May, 1913, Turkey was forced to give up all her territory in Europe except Constantinople and a limited adjacent territory. It was decided also that the disposal of the conquered lands should be determined by an international commission. But before the questions were settled the states that had conquered Turkey fell to quarreling among themselves.

Bulgaria claimed, through an arrangement made before the war, the lion's share of the conquered Turkish lands. Had she had her way she would have become by far the strongest of the Balkan states. But the others would listen to no such proposal; they proposed arbitration, but Bulgaria attacked them, and a fierce, bloody war was the result. Even Roumania, which had not been in the war against Turkey, now joined the others against Bulgaria, which was soon defeated and forced to sue for peace.


AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
ROUMANIA
Belgrade
Bucharest
R.
Danube
Silistria
BOSNIA
HERZEGOVINA
MONTENEGRO
SERBIA
BULGARIA
Sofia
BLACK SEA
Bosporus
Cetinje
Scutari
Uskub
Adrianople
THRACE
Constantinople
ADRIATIC SEA
ALBANIA
MACEDONIA
Salonica
Enos
ITALY
IONIAN SEA
IONIAN IS.
GREECE
AEGEAN SEA
TURKEY
Smyrna
SAMOS
Athens
RHODES
CRETE
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150 200

The Balkan States at the End of 1913

In the treaty of Bucharest, 1913, Greece, Montenegro, Serbia, and Bulgaria made large gains in territory taken from Turkey; but Bulgaria was obliged to give to Roumania a small strip in the northeast. The jealousy of Austria prevented Serbia from securing a much needed port on the Adriatic; instead, the new petty kingdom of Albania was erected. The power and extent of Turkey were greatly reduced, but the Turks were not driven out of Europe and were even permitted by the powers to retain some territory, including Adrianople, which they had stealthily recaptured while the Balkan states were fighting one another.

SIDE TALK

The Mohammedans. — The fact that the Turks have made such a poor showing in Europe may be due in part to the non-cosmopolitan character of the Mohammedan religion. The teachings of Mohammed were adapted to the Arabian people of his time, but are not adapted to all climes and to modern life and progress. The result is that there is to-day no great Mohammedan country, and four fifths of the Mohammedan people of our time live under Christian government.

As late as 1875 good Mohammedans continued to paddle their little rowboats across the Bosporus, refusing to use the ferry steamers, for the reason, as they said, that "if the Prophet had intended true believers to use steamboats, he would have mentioned them in the Koran."

For many years after other cities were lighted by electricity Constantinople retained the gas jet. The reason was that the sultan, always afraid of being blown up, saw such a resemblance between the words "dynamite" and "dynamo" that he determined to be on the safe side by prohibiting both from his dominions. See Davis, *Roots of the War*, page 271.

Questions and Topics. — I. Who are the Slav peoples? Describe the expansion and extent of the Russian Empire. What is meant by the Russian bureaucracy? Describe the emancipation of the serfs in 1861. How do serfs differ from slaves? Who were the Nihilists? Describe the life of the Russian peasant. What was the cause of the dispute between Japan and Russia? Write an essay on the war between them. In what way did Russia attempt to Russianize the Poles, Baltic peoples, and Finns? Describe the Russian revolution in 1905. Was it successful? Have a people oppressed by their government a right to rise against it? Why?

II. How do you account for the steady decline of the Turkish power in Europe during the past two hundred years? Describe the Turkish revolution of 1909. Why did the Balkan Christians rebel against Turkish rule? Why did Great Britain refuse to aid in protecting the Balkan Christians? Why are the decisions of the Congress of Berlin (1878) referred to as "shameful diplomatic proceedings"? What peoples were united against Turkey in the Balkan War of 1912? What were their aims and their grievance? What were the results of the war?

For Further Reading. — Alexinsky, *Modern Russia.* Graham, *Russia and the World.* Rambaud, *Russia.*

CHAPTER XLIV

THE MINOR STATES OF WESTERN EUROPE

To complete the story of Europe down to the outbreak of the World War in 1914, we must notice briefly the minor states of western Europe. The three peninsular countries farthest north, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, known as Scandinavia, lie between the Baltic and the North seas. Southwestward from these are the Netherlands (popularly called Holland), embracing the lower valley of the Rhine, and Belgium. The Ibe′rian Peninsula comprises Spain and Portugal, and Switzerland occupies the lofty region of the Alps in the heart of Europe.

Of these eight nations three, Switzerland, Portugal, and Spain, are republics. All the rest are limited monarchies, each having a constitution and a legislature chosen by the people.

I. SCANDINAVIA

547. Denmark. — About 1660 Denmark was changed from the feudal form of government into an absolute monarchy, and so continued for nearly two centuries. At the time of the third French Revolution, 1848, the king was induced to grant a constitution, but this was made far more liberal in 1866 and again in 1915. The legislature, consisting of two houses, is called the Rigsdag. Since 1866 the country has lived at peace with all the world and the people have devoted their energies to home industry and culture.

King Christian IX (1863–1906) did everything possible to enhance the welfare of his people. Because one of his daughters married the future king of England (Edward VII) and another the future tsar of Russia (Alexander III) the Danish king was humorously called the father-in-law of Europe.

The Danes are a sturdy, industrious, and highly intelligent people. Their greatest industries are farming and raising hogs, cattle, and poultry. Their shipments of eggs, bacon, and butter to Great Britain have a value of about two hundred million dollars a year. The farmers are instructed in excellent agricultural schools and more and more are adopting scientific methods. Danish farmers have adopted also a coöperative system on a large scale, by which most of the profits accrue, not to middlemen, but to the producers.

548. Sweden and Norway. — Sweden and Norway comprise the great Scandinavian Peninsula jutting southward. They extend from the parallel of 56° north latitude to a point far beyond the Arctic Circle. Norway reaches to the shore of the Arctic Ocean, where the sun never rises in midwinter and never sets from the end of April till the middle of August. Sweden is a great plain sloping eastward from the mountains of Norway to the Gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic Sea. Norway is a mighty plateau with majestic mountains and glaciers and deep valleys. It has a coast line of more than a thousand miles. It is the most thinly settled country in Europe. Its most important products are timber and fish. Sweden exports timber, dairy products, and minerals.

The Swedes, Norwegians, and Danes are kindred peoples with kindred languages, belonging to the Teutonic branch of the Indo-European family. The people of all three countries, known in earlier centuries as Northmen, are hardy and strong.

The school systems in Norway and Sweden, as in Denmark, are of the best, and are equipped with the best modern facilities for manual as well as mental training. The people are among the most highly educated and enlightened in Europe. The established religion is the Evangelical Lutheran, which is closely connected with the school system; but all religions are free.

About 1865 emigration on a large scale began and in the following half century more than a million Swedes and several hundred thousand Norwegians had left their native land, the greater proportion of them finding a home in the United States. They settled chiefly in the great wheat lands of the Northwest, where they have established a high standard of civilization and prosperity. In spite of this emigration both countries more than doubled in population during the hundred years prior to the World War. Sweden then boasted a population of about five and a half million and Norway of two and a half million.

A STREET IN STOCKHOLM, THE CAPITAL OF SWEDEN

At the left of the picture is the Royal Theater; at the right, the harbor. Because of its beautiful situation, partly on islands, Stockholm is often called "the Venice of the North." It is the same far northern latitude as Juneau, Alaska.

Each country has its king, and a bicameral legislature called the Storthing (stôr'tĭng) in Norway and the Riksdag in Sweden. In both countries woman suffrage has been adopted. The two nations were united under one king by the Congress of Vienna (sec. 435) but each had its own constitution and its own cabinet. The Norwegians, however, were not content to remain under the Swedish king. For many years there was much friction and in

1905 Norway declared its independence of Sweden.[1] War seemed imminent, but King Oscar II (1872–1907) won the applause of the world by nobly refusing to make war and permitting the Norwegians to depart in peace. Norway then chose as her king a younger son of the house of Denmark, a son-in-law of the king of Great Britain. He ascended the throne of Norway as Haakon VII.

II. HOLLAND AND BELGIUM

549. Holland (Kingdom of the Netherlands). — The people of Holland, as the Netherlands is usually called, are Teutonic; that is, they were one with the Germanic and Scandinavian peoples in the far past. Their struggles against the encroaching sea and against their oppressors (sec. 317) made them a brave people. There was a time when Holland was one of the great powers of Europe and the same is true of Sweden and of Spain. But the population and resources were not great enough to warrant the continuance of such a standard. From 1815 to 1830 Belgium was annexed to Holland, but then secured its independence by revolution, as we have seen (sec. 471).

The people of Holland, called the Dutch (a term often misused to designate the Germans), are highly intelligent. Their system of education is excellent, and school attendance is compulsory. In religion the great majority are of the Reformed faith, built on the teachings of Zwingli (sec. 291). The population in 1914 was about six million.

Queen Wilhelmina (vĭl-hĕl-mē′nä), a descendant of William the Silent (sec. 319), succeeded to the throne in 1890 at the age of ten years and won the love of all her people. The legislative body is called the States General and, as in most countries, is divided into two houses. The ministry is responsible to the legislature rather than to the queen.

Holland lost some of its colonial possessions in the Napoleonic wars, but many still remain. The Dutch West Indies are a small colony. The Dutch East Indies comprise more than 700,000 square miles and have a population of about sixty million.

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[1] In a vote of the people on the question only one in two thousand voted to retain the union with Sweden.

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Soaking Flax on a Belgian Farm

Raising flax and manufacturing linens and linen laces are important industries of Belgium. The flax is gathered, tied in bundles, and piled in stacks such as appear in the background of the picture. The woody bark and stem of the fibers are rotted off by sinking them on rafts in running water. The straw is then pounded until only the fibers are left. It is from the fibers that linen is made.

550. Belgium. — The people of Belgium, which lies between Holland and France and extends from the Rhine Valley to the North Sea, are mainly of two races, Walloons and Flemings, who speak, respectively, French and Flemish. The country is 11,000 square miles in extent, and its population, before the beginning of the World War in 1914, was nearly 8,000,000; hence it was the most densely populated country in Europe.

In religion nearly all the people are Roman Catholic. The public schools have been largely under the influence of the church. They are modern in their appointments, and illiteracy is decreasing; but in education Belgium does not yet equal France, Germany, Holland, and the Scandinavian countries.

The industrial interests of the Belgian cities are very extensive; the coal, iron, and zinc deposits are of great value. Two thirds of the farms in Belgium average but five acres each, but the farming is so intensive that a very few acres will support a family.

Belgium has the same constitution, with a few changes, that was adopted in 1831. The king acts through his ministers, who are responsible to the two houses of parliament. Until after the World War the Belgian system of voting gave a man of education or wealth two or three votes instead of one.

King Leopold I (1831–1865) was succeeded by his son, Leopold II (1865–1909), and he in turn by his nephew Albert, who won great fame in the World War. Leopold II acquired control of the Kongo Free State, a region in central Africa eighty times the size of Belgium. This great colony was a personal possession of the king, but in his will he bequeathed it to Belgium. In February, 1934, King Albert was killed by a fall from a mountain cliff. His son became king as Leopold III.

In October, 1936, Leopold III announced the ending of alliance with France and proclaimed the absolute neutrality of Belgium.

III. SPAIN, PORTUGAL, SWITZERLAND

551. Spain. — For half a century after the death of the treacherous and cruel Ferdinand VII in 1833, Spain was a scene of disorder and misrule. The king had willed the crown to his infant daughter Isabella; but his brother Carlos also claimed it and the result was a civil war that lasted seven years. Isabella won in the contest, but her reign presents a dreary story of broken promises and revolutions. Utterly wanting in character and capacity, she was driven from the throne in 1868 by a popular uprising.

For some years thereafter Spain cast about over Europe for a king, offering her crown to one prince after another. By offering it to a German prince she incidentally occasioned the Franco-Prussian War (sec. 493). An Italian prince accepted the crown, but soon threw it aside and left the country in disgust. In 1873 a republic was set up; but the next year Alfonso XII, grandson of Ferdinand VII, was called to the throne. He died in 1885 and his son Alfonso XIII (1886–1931) was born king, six months after his father's death.

But Alfonso XIII, a sincere lover of his people, could not adapt himself to modern ideas. In 1923 Primo de Rivera, with the king's consent, became dictator. He suppressed the constitution and freedom of the press and ruled the country with an iron hand, as did also his successor General Berenguer. Great numbers of the people opposed this kind of government and cried out for a republic. The king began to see the light. Early in 1931 he restored, by royal decree, free speech, free press, and promised a free election.

It was too late. An election on April 12, 1931, with monarchy or republic as the nation-wide issue, resulted in a great victory for the republicans. The king next day fled to France and the Republic of Spain was established. Alcala Zamora, a veteran statesman, was made the provisional President of Spain.

But there was great unrest in Spain. After the election in February, 1936, the party in power was composed chiefly of Socialists, Communists, and anarchists, and was hostile to the Church. The leaders of the more conservative parties determined to seize the government by force, and in midsummer they began an open rebellion. The civil war that followed was one of the most brutal and savage in history.

The continued war in Spain greatly increased the danger of a general European war. The nations proclaimed neutrality; but it was clear that Italy and Germany were in sympathy with the rebels, while France and Russia leaned toward the other side. The rebels, under General Francisco Franco, were better equipped than the Loyalists. By October they had occupied over half the area of Spain, and were besieging the capital city, Madrid. But the Loyalists were still in control of eastern Spain, including the largest city, Barcelona, and were stoutly defending Madrid. All Europe waited anxiously for the outcome of this internecine war.

Spain under Charles I and Philip II was a mighty world power and her colonial possessions were very great. But Spain could not shake off the shackles of the Middle Ages — even the Inquisition was revived in the nineteenth century — and she fell far behind the modern procession of the nations.

From the time of the defeat of the Armada in 1588 (sec. 310) Spain steadily declined. Her cup of humiliation was filled when three hundred and ten years later she lost Cuba and the Philippines in a short war with the United States. With the exception of a few small islands and a minor section of Africa her entire colonial empire of the past has melted away, and Spain to-day is rated as scarcely more than a third-class power.

552. The Republic of Portugal. — When in 1807 Napoleon seized Portugal, King John VI fled to the Portuguese colony, Brazil. Here he decided to remain even after the fall of Napoleon, but the Portuguese were unwilling to be ruled from across the Atlantic. When the king therefore returned to Portugal, Brazil became independent, and chose John's son Pedro as its ruler.[1] Portugal retains large possessions in Africa, also the Azores and Madeira Islands, but so badly are the African colonies managed that they have been a constant expense to the home treasury.

The government of Portugal until the abolition of the monarchy was very similar to that of Spain — a limited monarchy with two houses of the Cortes. Education was even more backward than in Spain, about three fourths of the people being unable to read.

Seldom in the past hundred years has Portugal enjoyed a wise and stable government. So poor was the management of the finances that in 1893 the payment of interest on the public debt was in part suspended. A revolutionary party arose and demanded reforms. They were not forthcoming and in 1908 the king was assassinated in the public square in Lisbon. His son

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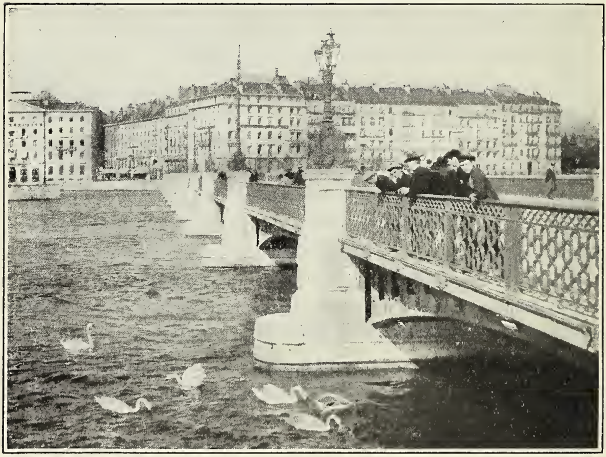
[1] The son of this ruler of Brazil, Pedro II, was the last monarch in the Western Hemisphere. He was emperor of Brazil from 1831 to 1889, when he abdicated because his people declared a republic.

Eman'uel (Manoel) succeeded him, but two years later he was driven from the country and Portugal became a republic. Bravely since then has the little republic struggled against ignorance, poverty, and disorder to maintain its existence.

553. The Swiss Republic. — The geographical heart of Europe is Switzerland. It embraces the central region of the Alps, including all the loftiest peaks of that mountain system, except Mt. Blanc (môɴ bläɴ) and a few neighboring peaks. Here in the Swiss glaciers rise several great rivers — the Rhine flowing to the North Sea, the Rhone which reaches the Mediterranean through France, and the Inn whose waters flow into the Black Sea by way of the Danube. Switzerland has an area of nearly 16,000 square miles (one third the size of New York) and is the home of about four million people.



Bridge across the Rhone at Geneva, Switzerland

The city lies at the end of Lake Geneva, whose outlet is the Rhone River. Geneva is noted for its watch making, an industry that was started as long ago as 1587. This city has been chosen as the seat of the League of Nations.

Of the twenty-two Swiss cantons thirteen are German in speech, four are French, four are mixed and one is Italian. All three are official languages. Many of the people are Roman Catholics, but more than half are Protestants. The school system is of the best and education is compulsory. Though hopelessly divided in language and religion and separated by mountain barriers, there are no more patriotic people in the world than the Swiss.

The Swiss do not maintain a standing army, but military training is compulsory. Young men are required, without giving up their regular occupation, to spend several weeks each summer for some years in a training camp. It is estimated that half a million trained riflemen could be mobilized within a very short time.

The government of Switzerland is the most democratic in the world. It was the original modern republic of Europe. In 1848 a liberal constitution was adopted and with some changes is still in force. Each canton, like our states, has its own constitution and government. The Federal Assembly is like our Congress. As with us, the upper house is composed of two delegates from each state or canton, while in the lower house the representation is based on population.

The executive is composed of a committee of seven men elected by the Federal Assembly. The chairman of this committee, chosen for one year, is often spoken of as the president of Switzerland, but he has little more power than his colleagues.

The initiative and referendum have reached their greatest development in Switzerland, the former being a purely Swiss creation. By the initiative a certain number of people may propose a law, which may then be passed by a vote of the people without action of the legislature. By the referendum a law passed by the legislature may be subjected to a vote of the people, whose decision is final. The referendum has long been in use in our country with respect to state constitutions, and both the initiative and the referendum have been adopted in some of our states with respect to laws also.

SIDE TALK

South America. — Perhaps in the far-away future the Spaniards and Portuguese will be remembered more for their offspring in the New World than for anything else. It is a remarkable fact that there are several times as many Spanish-speaking nations to-day as any other language can boast. These include Mexico, the little countries of Central America, and all the South American republics except Brazil.

It is more than probable that the time will come when South America will be one of the great centers of civilization. Already one of the Spanish South American countries, Argentina, gives promise of becoming a first-class power; and the same is true of Brazil, an offspring of Portugal, one of the least important of the European states. Argentina is far enough south of the equator to enjoy a temperate climate. The country is about one third the size of the United States and has a population above eleven million. The capital city, Buenos Aires, has passed the two million mark and is one of the great cities of the world.

Brazil has an area greater than that of the United States and a population above forty million. A close third among the South American countries is Chile, a little larger than Texas, with over four million inhabitants and extending along the western coast for 2600 miles.

Questions and Topics. — I. When did Denmark adopt its present constitution? What kind of king was Christian IX? What are the chief industries of the Danes? Describe the Scandinavian peninsula. When and why did Norway and Sweden separate? How do the people of these countries compare with the people of Italy and Spain?

II. Why is the Netherlands called Holland? Who are the Dutch royal family? How do the Dutch differ from the Belgians?

III. What can you tell of the ruling family of Spain? How are the legislative houses chosen? Of what early races are the Spaniards and Portuguese descendants? When and how did Portugal become a republic? Who are the Swiss? How do they govern themselves? What languages are used in Switzerland?

For Further Reading. — Books listed in the preceding chapters or other histories of Modern Europe.

CHAPTER XLV

ADVANCES IN GOVERNMENT, SCIENCE, AND INDUSTRY

I. A Century of Revolution

554. Decline of Monarchy. — In the world's history the monarchial form of government has always been more common than self-government of the people. This is because men are created so unequal in capacity for leadership. A born leader gets control of military and state affairs with the willing consent of the masses who feel the need of real leadership. He then organizes the government into a system so that his son, possibly a weakling in comparison, may retain the power. Thus we have the origin of the monarchy. The dawn of history reveals monarchial forms of government only.

The fatal weakness of a monarchy lies in the fact that a dullard, an imbecile, or a tyrant may inherit the throne. The magistrate in a republic must be a man of capacity. He has risen from the multitude, having gone through the sifting process many times, beginning in childhood. The weakest of our American presidents were men of capacity far above the average man, and, it may be added, far above the average monarch.

The monarchy was the almost universal form of human government until recent times. But in 1914 there were very few absolute monarchies in the civilized world. Many countries were republics; others had limited the power of the hereditary ruler, as in most European countries, or, as in England, had taken the power wholly away from him. In only a few, as Russia, Germany, and Japan, did the monarch retain large governing powers. Why this world revolution in government?

The answer is not far to seek. The invention of printing, the

Renaissance, the Reformation, and other causes greatly raised the standard of intelligence among the people, and in consequence they became conscious of their own powers and rights and refused longer to be exploited by their rulers. In most countries they have recognized the needlessness of submitting to the tyranny of a man who chances to inherit a throne and have come forward and demanded the right to manage their own affairs in whole or in part. The result has been the overturning of thrones and the banishing, or greatly curtailing the power, of royal families. In all the civilized world in 1914 the rulers were few indeed who could make a law or lay a dollar of taxation on the people without the consent of the people's representatives.

The greatest fact in modern history consists, not in the discoveries of science, nor in the invention of machinery, not even in the development of our own great republic, but in the mighty wave of constitutional, representative democracy that has swept over Europe. In this chapter we are considering this movement as it had progressed to 1914; but one of the chief results of the World War was the further spread of democracy.

The movement toward democracy has been of vast consequence. It has emancipated the common man and recognized his right to self-ownership. It has given him a chance to make the best of himself. Under the old régime the energies of the common man were spent in paying his burdensome taxes and in serving his masters. To-day in nearly every civilized land he can come and go as he will, he can worship God in his own way, and can engage in any occupation, not for a master, but for himself, and he can prevent the enactment of oppressive laws by helping to make the laws. This political emancipation, this releasing of the individual from the fetters that bound him, has counted much for progress in other lines, for the opening of the door of opportunity to the millions vastly extends the field for the rise of geniuses and leaders.

555. A Review of the Century of Revolution. — The pioneer in this great modern world-movement was the United States of

America.[1] It is true that the American colonies were never oppressed as were the people of Europe, but their successful revolt against unjust taxation resulted in the setting up of the first important self-governing nation of modern times.

Hard upon the American Revolution followed the French Revolution in 1789. Its results in France were very far-reaching, as noted in earlier chapters, but they did not extend far beyond the boundaries of France. The masses of the people needed further schooling as to their rights and their power of securing them.

Again in 1830, still again in 1848, and finally in 1871, France made great advances and has finally reached a nearly ideal state of human liberty and equality. No more typical picture of great results of the revolutionary era can be found than in France. The French peasant of to-day is one of the freest and thriftiest and happiest creatures in the world, owning and cultivating his little eight-acre farm, the same on which his ancestors toiled and sweat blood in the service of their heartless masters.

Meantime other peoples were slowly catching the American-French spirit, were awakening to a sense of their rights. One by one they demanded of their respective rulers more liberal treatment, and this when granted was embodied in a constitution which guaranteed the rights of the people and set a limit to the power of the sovereign.

As early as 1820 a few of the smaller German states (Baden, Württemberg, Hesse) gained constitutions. Then came a decade of reaction, but the spirit of freedom burst forth again, resulting in the independence of Greece, the driving of the last of the Bourbons from France, and the granting of constitutions to Belgium, Saxony, Hanover, and Brunswick. Much had now been won, but not enough, and in 1848 another flaring up for freedom spread over Europe like a conflagration. In this instance even Austria, wrung from the iron grasp of Metternich, gained a constitution, and the same year witnessed a like liberal move in Denmark, Holland, and Sardinia.

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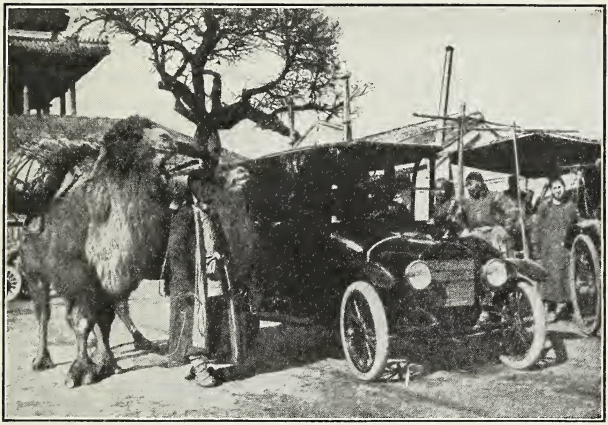
[1] It is true that the British nation and a few others, as Holland and Switzerland, had been moving in the direction of self-government for several hundred years, but their movement was an evolution rather than a revolution, and moreover Great Britain did not secure a government by the people before 1832.

In 1860 Italy was rescued by the great Cavour from a grinding thralldom. Most of the countries of Europe were now swept clean of tyrannical government. Only Turkey and Russia remained absolute monarchies, and Germany nearly such; but they underwent revolutions early in the twentieth century. This Era of Revolution will be remembered for all future time as the period of political emancipation of the civilized world. The great power retained by the monarch of the German Empire in spite of the constitution of that country (sec. 504), was one of the chief causes of the World War that began in 1914.

556. China. — During the Middle Ages Europe knew little of the Far East, but such a condition is impossible in these days of steam and electricity and world-wide commerce. China remained for ages a sealed book to the rest of the world, and its development as a modern nation had its beginning in our own times.

Great Britain began the opening up of China in 1840–1842, in a short, disgraceful war in which she forced the opium trade upon the Chinese and gained control of the island of Hongkong. Commercial treaties were made later by other European countries and by the United States. The toleration of Christian missionaries was secured, many Chinese ports were opened to foreign trade, and later the right to open mines and build railroads was obtained.

About the close of the century a scramble for Chinese territory began among the European powers. Germany seized the port of Kiaochow (kyou′chō′) in 1897; Russia took Port Arthur and practically all of Manchuria (sec. 539); France took a port in the south; and indeed it looked as if China was to be partitioned as Africa had been. The Chinese resented the intrusion, and in 1900 the "Boxers," a secret society, formed a great conspiracy to exterminate all "Western barbarians." After considerable bloodshed the movement was put down. Peking was taken by the joint forces of the Powers, and China was brought to her knees and forced to pay a heavy indemnity. That China did not share the fate of Africa is due chiefly, as noticed in an earlier chapter (sec. 540), to the wonderful and unexpected strength of Japan.



Transportation, Old and New, in China

The Mongolian camel of caravan days is being replaced by American motor cars, as the picture shows. Good roads and railroads are being built in China, to meet modern conditions.

A few years later, China underwent the most colossal and amazing revolution in history. It took France eighty years to bring about her present government; the American colonies were almost self-governing from the time of the landing of the Pilgrims, and the War of the Revolution brought no great change. China, on the other hand, with her population of over 300,000,000, passed from an absolute monarchy to a republic in a very few months, and with but a slight effusion of blood.

The leaven of Western civilization had been working slowly in China. It resulted in the remodeling of the army and of the educational system, in an organized crusade against the opium trade, and in a widespread feeling of opposition against the tyrannical Manchu dynasty which had ruled the country since 1644. A very extensive revolt, started in September, 1911, resulted in dethroning the emperor in February, 1912. A republic was set up, and Yuan Shih-Kai (yo͝o-än′ shē-kī′), a statesman of great talents, was made the first president. The new president, however, was not wholly true to his professed principles. In 1915–1916 he attempted to turn China back into an empire with himself as the emperor, but southern China revolted. The republic was then restored, but the central government under Yuan's successors was weakened by other revolts.

557. **The Hague Conferences.** — The first peace conference, called into existence by Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, was held at the Hague, in Holland, in 1899. All the great nations and many small ones were represented. Disarmament, or rather the non-increase of armies and navies by the nations, was seriously discussed and would no doubt have been adopted but for the opposition of Germany. The subject of arbitration fared somewhat better. In spite of objections from Germany, the Hague Tribunal was established, consisting of judges from whom a court of arbitration could be selected whenever desired; but it was not made compulsory for a nation to submit any case to arbitration. Thus the nations might still use force instead if they preferred. Various important disputes were settled satisfactorily by the Hague Tribunal.

In 1907 a second conference was held at the Hague, representing nearly all the nations of the world. Many "conventions" concerning neutrality and the conduct of war were framed and later formally ratified by all the great powers and by most of the other countries.

II. PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INDUSTRY

558. **Man's Triumph over Disease.** — Of scarcely less importance than man's political emancipation is the progress made in science and invention. Some of the great discoveries that have pro-

foundly affected human thought, as those in astronomy, are more intellectual than practical. Among the most important of a practical nature are those pertaining to health and disease. In this field the last half of the nineteenth century brought marvelous results.

The germ theory of disease has been established beyond dispute. It has been discovered that nearly all, if not all, infectious and contagious diseases are caused by minute microscopic organisms, called bacteria or microbes, which multiply very rapidly under certain conditions. Each disease is caused by a particular species of bacteria ; and a wonderful advance was made by scientists when they " isolated " or identified the particular microbe that causes this or that human ailment. The French scientist, Pasteur (pȧs-tûr′, 1822–1895), deserves credit above all others as a pioneer in this field of research.

It is now known what special organisms cause tuberculosis, typhoid, diphtheria, lockjaw, cholera, and various other diseases, and this knowledge is of vital importance in the study of how to prevent and cure them. To destroy the poison or toxin of these malignant bacteria various antitoxins are effectively used.

Another class of germs are the " beneficent " bacteria, which are necessary to human life, and are far more numerous than the other sort. These cause the decay of vegetable matter and the putrefaction of dead bodies, also the fermentation necessary in the making of wine, vinegar, and the raising of dough for baking bread. They are also necessary to the growth of plant life. The science of bacteriology is still in its infancy and great things may be expected from the future.

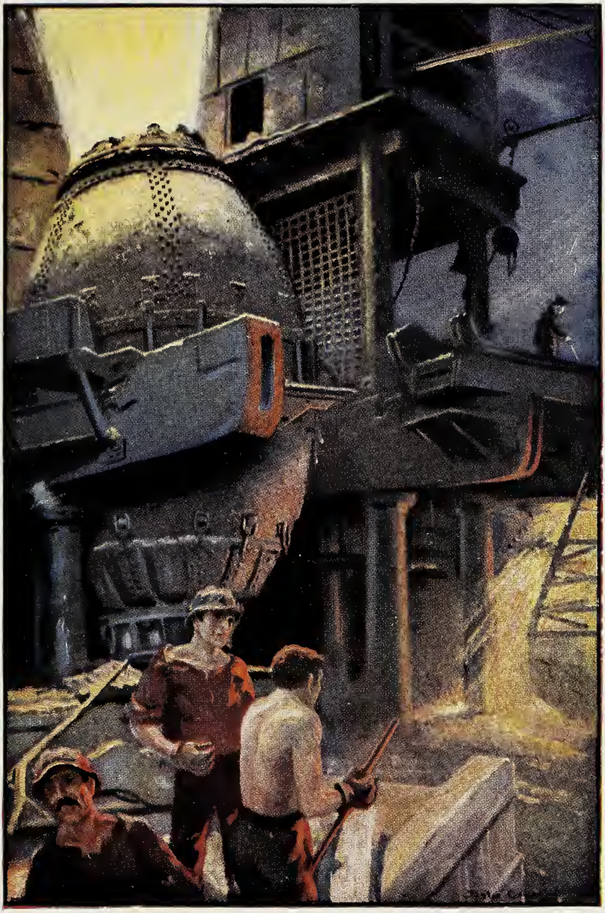
559. Invention and Industry. — In the chapter on the industrial revolution (ch. XXXVI) we noticed the marvelous changes in industrial life brought about by the invention of machinery, the applying of scientific knowledge to manufacturing and transportation, in the latter part of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth. But the process did not stop there; it has continued to this day, and some of the most important inventions and improvements are those of recent times. Only a few of these can be mentioned here.

In 1828 Henry Bessemer discovered that if hot air was forced into the furnace iron could be smelted with much less fuel than was necessary with cold air. A forced hot blast, and the use of coke as fuel, are the essential features of the smelting furnace in use to-day. Smelting furnaces are from seventy-five to one hundred feet high, and a single one will turn out a hundred tons of iron a day. To make steel, the iron is placed in a converter, also the invention of Bessemer, and there heated to a very high temperature with the aid of a forced draft of air. This is known as the Bessemer process, and through its use the manufacture of steel has become one of the leading industries of the world.

The middle period of the nineteenth century will always be remembered for the development of steam railroads. They had their beginning in England in the early part of the century and soon spread to other countries. But steam power is now largely supplemented by that subtle something in nature that we call electricity.

From the time of Benjamin Franklin and even earlier something was known of this form of power. In 1800 Volta, an Italian, invented the chemical battery for producing electricity, and Faraday, an Englishman, converted the electric current into mechanical motion in 1821. The dynamo was invented thirty or forty years later. Dynamos driven by steam or water power produce practically all the electricity in common use.

The practical uses of electricity constitute one of the marvels of modern times. About 1840 Professor S. F. B. Morse of the United States perfected the electric telegraph. In 1858 the first Atlantic submarine cable was laid. The transmitting of news by wireless telegraphy is the invention of Marconi, an Italian. In our time an important event may be known in any part of the civilized world within an hour after it occurs. Other wonders of electricity are the telephone, invented by Bell in 1876, and the arc light, invented by Edison in 1879 (both Americans); also the



Bessemer Converter in a Steel Mill

Hertzian waves, discovered (1887) by Hertz, and the "X-Rays" (1895) by Röntgen (both German scientists). The wonderful element radium was discovered by Pierre and Marie Curie (French and Polish-French scientists) in 1898.

Nothing is more useful in the electrical world than the telephone, and its wonderful recent development, the wireless telephone or radio. From broadcasting stations electric waves are sent in all directions and these, caught by a receiver, reproduce the voice. Thousands of these receivers may catch the same sounds at the same moment. The possibilities of radio are boundless. By means of the radio it is possible for any number of people to listen to addresses, church services, music, market reports, etc. A gathering of people in Chicago listened to the voice of an Arctic explorer far beyond the Arctic Circle; broadcasting from San Francisco has been heard in Cape Town, South Africa.

The gasoline motor is one of the most useful of modern inventions. It is coming into extensive use, most conspicuously in the automobile, the farm tractor, and the airship or airplane.

Questions and Topics. — I. Why has monarchy been a more general form of government in the past than the republic? What is the great weakness of a monarchy? What is the greatest fact in modern history? What has the great democratic movement of the past century and a half meant for the common man? In what way can it be shown that the United States is the pioneer in self-government? Why is France associated with us in this respect? Why is it impossible for the Far East to remain unknown to Europe in our time as it did in the Middle Ages? Tell of the scramble for Chinese territory by the European nations. Describe the great revolution in China in 1912.

II. What discoveries has science made with reference to the germs that cause disease? Name some diseases of which the germ has been isolated. What is anti-toxin? What are the uses of benevolent bacteria? Relate the development in the production and uses of electricity; of the gasoline motor.

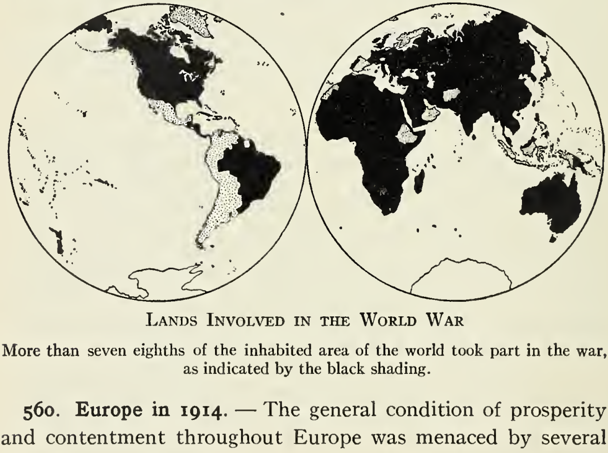
THE WORLD WAR, AND AFTER

CHAPTER XLVI

THE WAR FROM 1914 TO 1917

I. Historical Background

All other wars in the world's history are dwarfed in comparison with the terrible conflagration that broke out in Europe in August, 1914. What was the situation in Europe in the summer of 1914, and what were the causes of the great conflict?

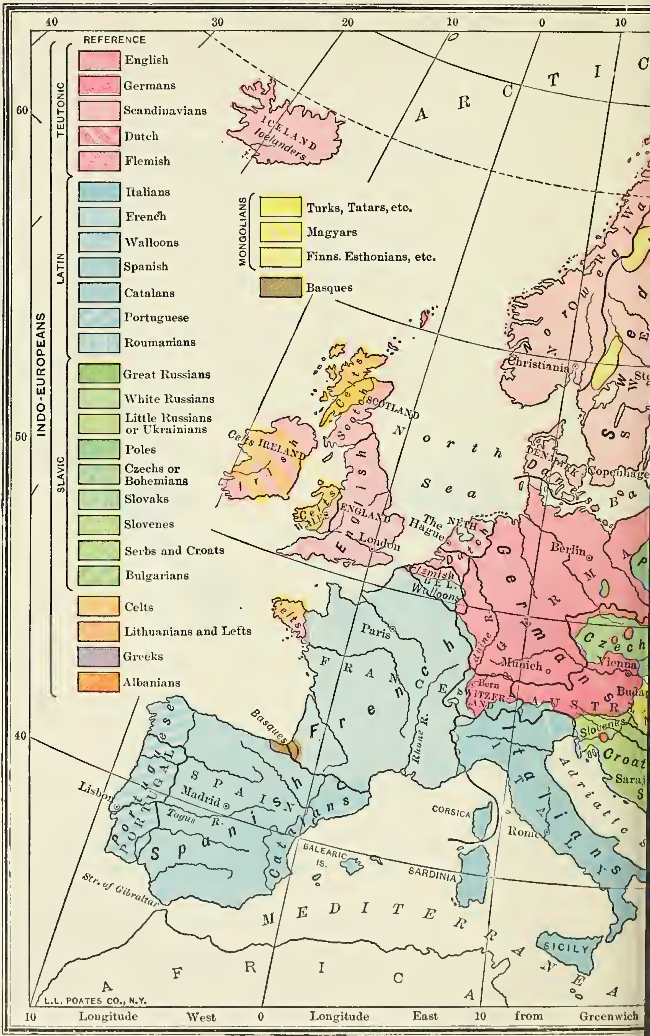


Lands Involved in the World War

More than seven eighths of the inhabited area of the world took part in the war, as indicated by the black shading.

560. Europe in 1914. — The general condition of prosperity and contentment throughout Europe was menaced by several dangerous exceptions.

One of the remote causes of the war lay in the fact that many racial strains of Europe were restless and discontented under alien government. The Poles (sec. 366) had for more than a century


REFERENCE
INDO-EUROPEANS
TEUTONIC
English
Germans
Scandinavians
Dutch
Flemish
LATIN
Italians
French
Walloons
Spanish
Catalans
Portuguese
Roumanians
SLAVIC
Great Russians
White Russians
Little Russians or Ukrainians
Poles
Czechs or Bohemians
Slovaks
Slovenes
Serbs and Croats
Bulgarians
Celts
Lithuanians and Letts
Greeks
Albanians
MONGOLIANS
Turks, Tatars, etc.
Magyars
Finns. Esthonians, etc.
Basques
A R C T I C
ICELAND
Icelanders
SCOTLAND
Celts
Scotch
IRELAND
Irish
Celts
Celts
WALES
ENGLAND
English
London
North Sea
The Hague
NETH.
Dutch
Flemish
BEL.
Walloons
Celts
Paris
FRANCE
French
Rhone R.
Basques
SPAIN
Spanish
Madrid
Tagus R.
Catalans
PORTUGAL
Portuguese
Lisbon
Str. of Gibraltar
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA
SARDINIA
ITALY
Italians
Rome
Adriatic
SICILY
MEDITERRANEAN
AFRICA
Norwegians
Christiania
DENMARK
Danes
Copenhage
Sto
Swedes
Berlin
GERMANY
Germans
Rhine R.
Munich
Bern
SWITZERLAND
Czech
Vienna
AUSTRIA
Budap
Slovenes
Croat
Saraj
L.L. POATES CO., N.Y.
40
30
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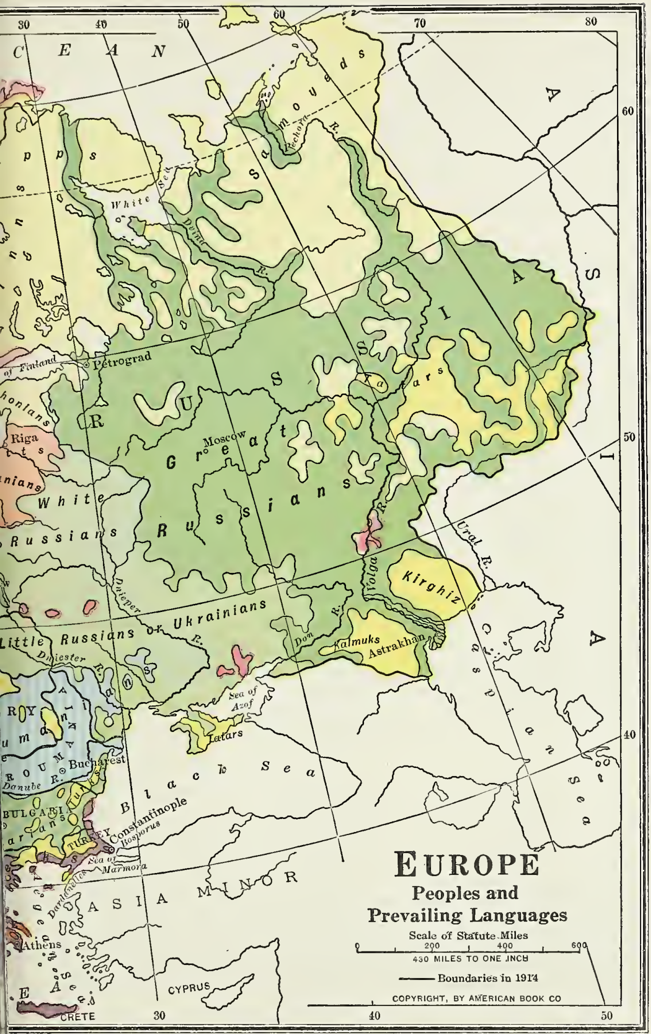
Longitude
West
0
Longitude
East
10
from
Greenwich


30
40
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70
80
C E A N
A
60
50
40
Samoyeds
Pechora
R.
pps
White
Sea
Dvina
R.
Petrograd
of Finland
honians
Riga
ts
nians
White
Russians
RUSSIA
Tatars
Great Russians
Moscow
ASIA
Ural R.
Volga
R.
Kirghiz
Caspian Sea
Dnieper
Little Russians or Ukrainians
R.
Don
R.
Kalmuks
Astrakhan
Dniester
R.
Sea of Azof
Tatars
Roumanians
RY
ROUMANIA
Bucharest
Danube
R.
Black Sea
BULGARIA
arians
Turks
Constantinople
Bosporus
TURKEY
Sea of Marmora
Dardanelles
Aegean Sea
ASIA MINOR
Athens
CYPRUS
CRETE
30
40
50

EUROPE

Peoples and Prevailing Languages

Scale of Statute Miles

0 200 400 600

430 MILES TO ONE INCH

—— Boundaries in 1914

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groaned under the rule of Russia, Austria, and Germany, and they never ceased to look forward to a day when they might again govern themselves. The Finns, Esthonians, Letts, and Lithuanians were oppressed by Russia. They were waiting for a chance to strike for freedom, and the same was true of many Italians, Bohemians, Serbs, and others in Austria-Hungary. Alsace-Lorraine was restless under German rule, and France had never forgiven Germany for forcing its cession in 1871.

Still more menacing to the peace of the world was the fact that two of the great empires, Germany and Russia, were under autocratic government. The sweep of democracy, noted in the last chapter, stopped short of those countries. The emperor of either, with a small class of office-holding nobles, could shape legislation, control the army and navy, and declare war without consulting the people. The same thing may be said, though in a less degree, of the emperor of the polyglot, mosaic empire of Austria-Hungary. In Germany for a generation the schools and universities had trained the people to believe that the state can do no wrong;[1] and public opinion, from day to day, was largely controlled and directed through a strict censorship of the press. Moreover, the great material prosperity of the Germans, under the paternal control of their government, was a strong influence for preventing any serious opposition to the power of the emperor. The World War began with ultimatums, and mobilizations of armies, and declarations of war, in which the three emperors acted with small regard for the wishes of the 290,000,000 people under their rule.

Another very serious danger came from international rivalries in commerce and in colonial development, especially the desire of the ruling classes of Germany for a better "place in the sun."

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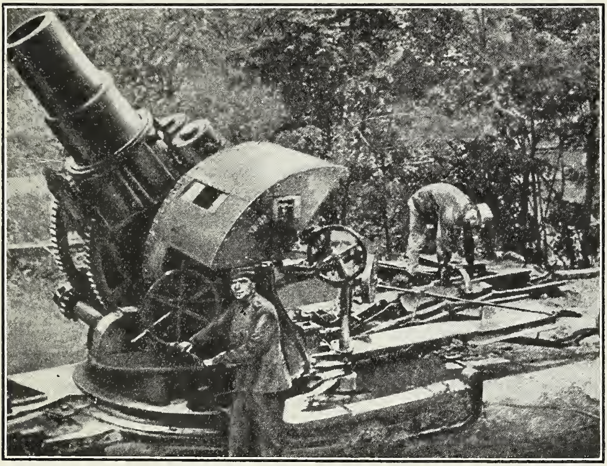
[1] The German universities had done much toward fostering military spirit. Professor Treitschke (trĭch'kē) of Berlin (d. 1896) took the lead as a writer in this field. He exalted national strength as the supreme political virtue and advocated the expansion of Germany at any cost, regardless of the rights of other states. He pointed clearly to German world empire and intimated that it should be built on the ruins of the British Empire. His influence on the German mind was very great.

561. Germany and Europe. — That the German government was determined to extend the dominions of Germany was indicated by many facts. The German population was increasing rapidly, and the German government was displeased because large numbers of her subjects were being lost to the empire by emigration to other lands. Prussia, the dominating force in the empire, had profited greatly by recent wars against Denmark, Austria, and France (secs. 491–495). Since 1871 Germany had steadily built up a stronger and ever stronger army, until it was more formidable by far than that of any other nation. So elaborate was the system that the schedule for the departure of trains from the various military centers to any possible seat of war was fixed years in advance. Since the accession of William II, also, Germany had built up a great navy. In a public speech the kaiser once said, " Our future lies on the water " ; and again, " German colonial aims will be gained only when Germany becomes master of the ocean." The island kingdom of Great Britain, however, adopted the policy of keeping her navy stronger than Germany's, at whatever cost ; and both France and Russia followed, as well as they could, the pace set by Germany in building up both armies and navies. As early as 1899, at the first peace conference at the Hague, the Russian emperor proposed a general limitation of armaments ; but Germany refused the proposition.

Having a powerful war machine — more powerful than was needed for mere defense — Germany in various disputes threatened war if her demands were not complied with. For example, in 1905, under a threat of war, she forced France to abandon her plans of reform in Morocco, a half-civilized country in North Africa in which France had great interests, and demanded the calling of a conference of the powers to settle the Moroccan question. Her real object was to sow discord between France and Great Britain, which had recently come to a friendly agreement ; but the result was just the opposite. Not only did Great Britain and France stand together, but

Great Britain also soon came to agreement with Russia on the Asiatic questions which had formerly separated them. Thereafter we find the six Great Powers divided into two opposing groups — the Triple Entente (än-tänt′) composed of France, Russia, and Great Britain; and the Triple Alliance, formed nearly twenty-five years earlier and composed of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.[1]



Long-Range German Howitzer

At the outbreak of the World War, Germany and Austria were provided with many large-caliber guns more effective than any before used.

562. Austro-German Designs in the Balkan States. — For some years before 1914, the German and Austrian emperors had cultivated close relations with Turkey. German officers were sent to train the Turkish army, and German financiers secured concessions for many enterprises in the Turkish dominions. Most noted of all was the concession for building a railroad through Asiatic Turkey from the Bosporus to Bagdad (map facing page 609). From Berlin to the Bosporus a railroad was already in existence, passing through Austria-Hungary, Serbia, and Bulgaria. There is every reason to believe that the Austrian and German emperors, long before 1914, designed to extend their controlling influence over the whole Balkan region. Such domination of the Balkans and of Turkey would not only menace the British control of Egypt and India, but would also cut off Russia from free access to the Mediterranean.

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[1] In the World War, the Entente powers and the nations allied with them were called the Allies, while Germany and Austria-Hungary were called the Central Powers.

At the end of the first Balkan War (sec. 546) Austria insisted on the creation of an independent Albania, in order to cripple Serbia by cutting her off from the sea. In the second Balkan War Austria and Germany were chagrined at the defeat of Bulgaria, whose king had been encouraged by them to attack Serbia.

Here, then, were the dangerous features of the European situation, in June, 1914: various peoples restless under alien rule, three irresponsible emperors wielding enormous power, and especially the desire of Germany and Austria to control the Balkan states. To these must be added the fact that the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente were colossal armed camps ready to grapple with each other in deadly combat if occasion arose.

II. INVASION OF BELGIUM AND FRANCE

563. Beginnings of the Great Conflict. — The main causes of the war have been noticed. The occasion was the murder of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, nephew of the aged emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary and heir to his throne. On June 28, 1914, when the archduke and his wife were driving through the little city of Sarajevo (så-rä′yâ-vō), they were assassinated by a young Serb native of Bosnia. The world was shocked at the news of the crime. The Austrians were furious in the belief that the atrocious deed had been plotted in Serbia. Austria consulted with the German government, and after three and a half weeks of secret preparation she sent (July 23) a startling ultimatum to Serbia.[1] This ultimatum demanded, among other things, that all anti-Austrian agitation be officially prohibited in Serbia, that all Serbian officers accused of such agitation by Austria be removed from office, that accessories to the assassination plot be proceeded against, the Austrian government to take part in the investigation, and that an answer be given to these demands within forty-eight hours.

Serbia could not fully comply with such demands without surrendering her sovereignty. Nevertheless, she promptly complied with nearly all the demands, and offered to submit to arbitration in case Austria was not satisfied. Sir Edward Grey, the British foreign minister, now proposed a concert of the Powers in order to settle the dispute without war; but Germany refused the suggestion of a conference such as France had consented to in the case of Morocco (sec. 561), or such as Russia had consented to in regard to the Balkans in 1878 (sec. 545). Germany also refused to suggest any other plan for preserving the peace of Europe.

Austria hastened to declare war on Serbia, July 28, 1914. She knew that this probably meant war with Russia also, for Russia, bound to Serbia by ties of kinship and religion, and opposed to the extension of Austrian power in the Balkans, had explicitly declared that she would not stand by and permit the little nation to be overwhelmed by the great one. But Austria was supported by Germany, which declared that the Serbian war was a local quarrel, that Russia had no right to interfere, and that if Russia mobilized her armies Germany would do the same. The German emperor had, on July 5, given Austria a free hand and it seemed that Austria, knowing that Germany would sustain her, would stop at nothing until she had opened her guns on Belgrade. Thus the World War had its beginning. Russia mobilized. On August 1 Germany declared war on Russia.

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[1] It is significant that the time chosen for thus forcing a war with Serbia was when France was weakened by internal differences, Russia had not fully recovered from the Japanese war and revolutionary disturbances, and Great Britain was supposed to be on the verge of civil war over the Irish question (sec. 522); also that the reconstruction of the Kiel Canal for warlike purposes was completed by Germany in June, 1914.

France was bound by treaty to come to the assistance of Russia in a defensive war, and Germany declared war on France also, August 3, on learning that France would meet her obligations to her ally.

Belgians Fleeing before the German Advance

The children are being carried in a cart drawn by dogs, such as are in general use throughout the country.

564. Invasion of Belgium. — As the eastern frontier of France was guarded by strong forts, it was easier for German forces to attack that country on the north, after marching through two small countries, Luxemburg and Belgium, whose neutrality had been guaranteed by the Great Powers, including Prussia. In violation not only of their neutrality, but also of the Prussian guaranty by which Germany was bound, German armies overran both little countries. The invasion of neutral Belgium was the occasion of Great Britain's declaration of war on Germany,[1] August 4; but the cause lay deeper. Great Britain had a vital interest in Belgian independence, for German possession of that country would bring a powerful, unfriendly nation close to her own coasts. Moreover, it was likewise contrary to British interests to suffer France to be crushed by Germany.

Italy was bound by treaty to assist the other nations of the Triple Alliance in a defensive war; but she declared her neutrality in 1914, on the ground that Germany and Austria-Hungary were the aggressors.

In every one of the warring nations, however, the majority of the people were easily persuaded that their own government was in the right. Even the Socialists, who had for years denounced war and proclaimed the doctrine of international brotherhood, responded promptly to the call to arms, following the lead of the Socialist delegates in the German Reichstag, who upheld their kaiser and voted to a man for the first great war loan.

565. The Battle of the Marne. — The German army planned to capture Paris and overwhelm France by a quick dash before Russia could fully mobilize, and then to deal with Russia later. But Belgium delayed the Germans, at Liége (lē-ĕzh′) and elsewhere, by defending her soil against invasion; the British sent over a small army to the aid of France; and the great French armies surprised the world by the speed and skill and steadiness with which they mobilized and fought to save their country.

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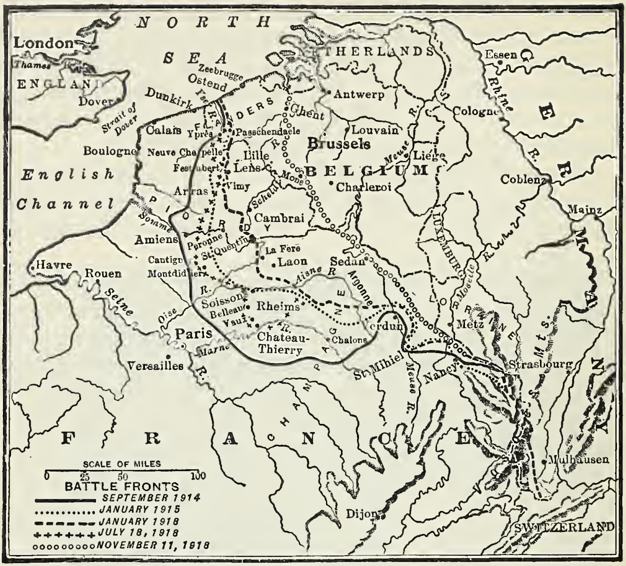
[1] The German Chancellor in a speech before the Reichstag on August 4 said: "We are now in a state of necessity, and necessity knows no law. Our troops have occupied Luxemburg and perhaps are already on Belgian soil. Gentlemen, that is contrary to the dictates of international law. . . . We knew, however, that France stood ready for invasion. France could wait but we could not. . . . So we were compelled to override the just protest of the Luxemburg and Belgian governments. The wrong — I speak frankly — that we are committing we will endeavor to make good as soon as our military goal has been reached." (France had promised to respect Belgian neutrality, and had not fortified her Belgian frontier.) On the same day the German Chancellor reproved the British for making war merely "for a scrap of paper," referring to the treaty under which Belgian neutrality was guaranteed by Great Britain and the other powers.


NORTH SEA
London
Thames
ENGLAND
Dover
Strait of Dover
English Channel
Zeebrugge
Ostend
Dunkirk
Calais
Ypres
Passchendaele
Boulogne
Neuve Chapelle
Festubert
Lille
Lens
Vimy
Arras
FLANDERS
Ghent
Antwerp
NETHERLANDS
Brussels
Louvain
BELGIUM
Liége
Charleroi
Mons
Scheldt R.
Meuse R.
Essen
Cologne
Rhine R.
Coblenz
Mainz
GERMANY
Somme
PICARDY
Amiens
Peronne
St. Quentin
Cambrai
La Fere
Laon
Sedan
Aisne R.
Argonne
Cantigny
Montdidier
Havre
Rouen
Seine
Oise
Soissons
Belleau
Vaux
Rheims
Chateau-Thierry
Marne R.
Chalons
Verdun
Paris
Versailles
St. Mihiel
Meuse R.
Nancy
Metz
LUXEMBURG
LORRAINE
Moselle R.
Strasbourg
Vosges Mts.
Mulhausen
CHAMPAGNE
FRANCE
Dijon
SWITZERLAND
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 100
BATTLE FRONTS
SEPTEMBER 1914
JANUARY 1915
JANUARY 1918
JULY 18, 1918
NOVEMBER 11, 1918

The Western Front

Paris was surrounded by forts that cost eighty million dollars, but these could afford only temporary protection. In the capture of Liége the Germans had revealed to the world the startling fact that no fortifications — earth, rock, cement, or steel — could withstand modern artillery. Preceded by scouting cavalry and airplanes, and followed by miles of artillery trains, the mighty German armies pushed forward day after day, delayed only here and there by heavy fighting. General Joffre (zhō′fr), the French commander, was severely criticized for not making a stand; but he knew what he was about. By falling back he gained time to raise the strength of his armies, while the Germans had a harder task to keep their forces supplied with food and munitions. At length, on September 6, when the Germans were only thirty miles from Paris, Joffre gave the command to hold fast.

The battle of the Marne is so called because the decisive fighting was in the valley of that river; but the battle lines extended from Paris to the great fortress of Verdun, a distance of 180 miles. The soldiers on each side numbered about a million. For four days the fighting was terrific. The defeated Germans then retreated fifty miles. Paris was saved.

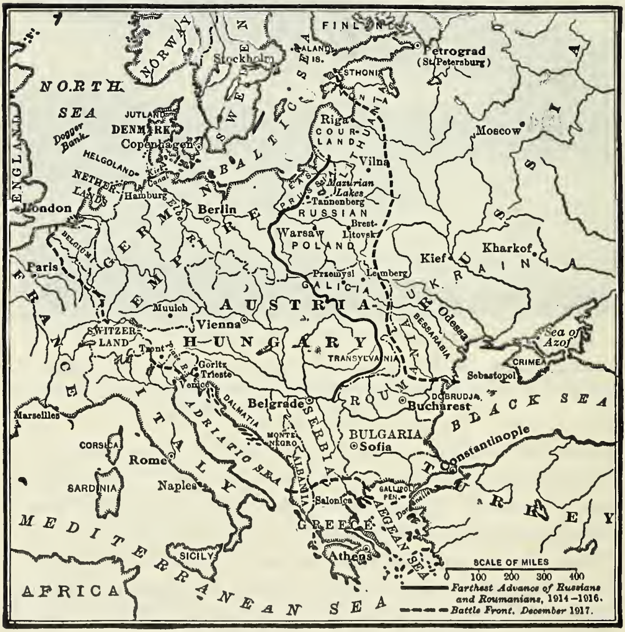
After the Battle of the Marne

A steel and concrete railway bridge across the Marne River destroyed by the retreating Germans. Many roads and bridges were wrecked during the war by retreating armies to delay the advance of their pursuers.

In losing the battle of the Marne the Germans lost the war. Never in the four years' warfare that followed could they recover from this failure. The battle of the Marne should therefore be ranked among the decisive battles of the world's history.

566. The Aisne, Calais, and Antwerp. — After the repulse at the Marne, the Germans retreated to a strong position on the Aisne (ân) River. Here took place the battle of the Aisne (September 13–28, 1914), a clash of arms even greater than that of the Marne. It was indecisive. Each side lost thousands of men, but neither gained any advantage.

The next great move was a race for the sea. If the Germans could gain control of the French coast opposite England, it would be of immense advantage to them. The city of Calais was their objective. After several weeks of maneuvering on a gigantic scale, the Germans made a desperate effort to take Calais and that part of the coast they so much desired; but they were thwarted, and their failure was due in part to the flooding of the country by the Belgians and to the aid of British warships.


NORWAY
SWEDEN
Stockholm
FINLAND
ALAND IS.
Petrograd
(St. Petersburg)
ESTHONIA
LIVONIA
BALTIC SEA
NORTH SEA
JUTLAND
DENMARK
Dogger Bank
Copenhagen
HELGOLAND
Kiel
Kiel Canal
NETHERLANDS
Hamburg
Elbe R.
ENGLAND
London
BELGIUM
Paris
FRANCE
GERMAN EMPIRE
Berlin
Riga
COURLAND
Vilna
Moscow
EAST PRUSSIA
Mazurian Lakes
Tannenberg
RUSSIAN POLAND
Warsaw
Brest-Litovsk
RUSSIA
Kharkof
Kief
UKRAINA
Przemysl
Lemberg
GALICIA
Munich
AUSTRIA
Vienna
SWITZERLAND
Trent
Piave R.
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
BUKOVINA
BESSARABIA
Odessa
Sea of Azof
CRIMEA
Sebastopol
Goritz
Trieste
Venice
ROUMANIA
Bucharest
DOBRUDJA
BLACK SEA
Belgrade
DALMATIA
SERBIA
BULGARIA
Sofia
Constantinople
MONTENEGRO
ALBANIA
ADRIATIC SEA
ITALY
Marseilles
CORSICA
Rome
Naples
SARDINIA
Salonica
GALLIPOLI PEN.
Dardanelles
AEGEAN SEA
TURKEY
GREECE
Athens
SICILY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400
Farthest Advance of Russians and Roumanians, 1914–1916.
Battle Front, December 1917.

THE RUSSIAN AND OTHER FRONTS

Meantime, on October 9, the Germans captured Antwerp in Belgium, one of the most strongly fortified cities in the world. The great fortresses guarding the city crumbled under the tremendous bombardment of the German guns. Thousands of the people fled from the city and among them a fine Belgian army, which was thus saved for further service. As the winter approached, the opposing armies along the Aisne " dug in " and settled down to what came to be known as trench warfare.

III. RUSSIA, TURKEY, THE BALKANS, AND ITALY

567. The Russian Front. — With surprising rapidity Russia mobilized great armies. They were under the command of Grand Duke Nicholas, uncle of the tsar. The German kaiser found it necessary to draw heavily on his western forces to meet the foe in the east. He sent von Hin'denburg, a veteran commander, to rescue East Prussia, which the Russians had invaded. In the fierce three days' battle of Tannenberg, von Hindenburg beat the Russians, drove the army back through Poland, and captured 80,000 of its men.

In Austrian Galicia the Russians were more successful. They captured two great Austrian fortresses and 120,000 men. But their success was short-lived. In the spring and summer of 1915 they lost nearly all their gains, and the Germans pushed on into Poland and occupied Warsaw. The failure of the Russians was caused chiefly by a shortage of ammunition.

The cup of sorrow to the bitterest dregs was meted out to Poland. Innocent of the war, her people, like the Belgians, were trodden in the dust by ruthless armies, their land was made desolate, and great numbers of them perished of starvation and exposure.

568. Turkey and the Dardanelles. — That Turkey, at the behest of Germany, would enter the war against the Allies, was arranged by a secret alliance. She did so in November, 1914. Before the war Cyprus and Egypt were nominally vassals of Turkey, though under the control of Great Britain; but Great

Britain now annexed Cyprus to the British crown and declared Egypt a British protectorate independent of Turkey.

Soon after Turkey began war the Allies planned an important move against her — no less than a forcing of the Dardanelles (dar-da-nĕlz′) and the capture of Constantinople. Success there would greatly weaken Turkey, make Egypt and India safe from Turkish attack, and reopen a trade route by which Russia could export grain and import munitions. In February, 1915, a British-French fleet opened their naval guns on the Dardanelles and later landed an army on the Gallipoli (ga-lĭp′o-lē) peninsula. But the Turks, well entrenched and under German commanders, could not be dislodged. After losing thousands of men and several ships, the Allies withdrew. The campaign was a dismal failure.

On the other hand, a Turkish attack on Egypt was likewise a failure. Russian and British armies seized large areas in the eastern part of Asiatic Turkey; and most of Arabia threw off the Turkish yoke.

569. The Balkans and Italy. — The years 1915 and 1916 were years of great activity in the Balkan region. Soon after the war opened, an Austrian army invaded Serbia; but a few months later the Serbians, summoning their entire national strength, won a crushing victory and drove the Austrians from their soil. The following year a great Austro-German army, aided by the Bulgarians — who entered the war in October, 1915, — invaded Serbia, and like a mighty steam roller crushed and subdued the whole country. In December her ally Montenegro suffered a like fate. Roumania, relying on Russian aid, declared war on Austria-Hungary in August, 1916. But the promised aid was not forthcoming, and Austro-German and Bulgarian forces succeeded in overrunning the greater part of the country.

Meanwhile Italy had joined the Allies in May, 1915, in spite of their impending failure at the Dardanelles and the terrible Russian defeat in Galicia. German influence had been exerted to the utmost to keep Italy at least neutral, but the Italian government, urged on by the Italian people, at length declared war on Austria-Hungary, hoping to acquire the Italian-speaking regions that were still under Austrian rule. In two years of hard fighting the Italian armies made only small gains, but they occupied the attention of a large part of the Austrian forces.

IV. The Western Front, and War on the Sea

570. Verdun and the Somme. — From the North Sea to the Swiss border, a distance of over 400 miles, stretched the trenches of the Western Front. Month after month, in 1915–1917, the armies were deadlocked, but the fighting was almost continuous, and there were occasional gigantic battles, only a few of which can be mentioned here.

At Ypres (ē′pr') in May and June, 1915, the Germans gained some advantage by the use of poisonous chlorine gas, a factor wholly new in warfare. The Allies were amazed at the introduction of this cruel weapon, but soon learned to protect themselves by means of respirators or masks.

The spring of 1916 was marked by the tremendous battle of Verdun. The Germans had cogent reasons for launching a great offensive against this historic fortress (sec. 211). The Russian system seemed on the verge of collapse; the British had failed at the Dardanelles; Italy had made little headway; Belgium and Serbia were crushed. But France still held a steady course, determined and unconquered. Why not strike a telling blow at France? Thirty-six forts bristled from the hilltops around Verdun. Could the Germans seize this region, they might deal France a mortal blow, and make for the crown prince, the heir to the imperial throne, who commanded in that section, an immortal military reputation.

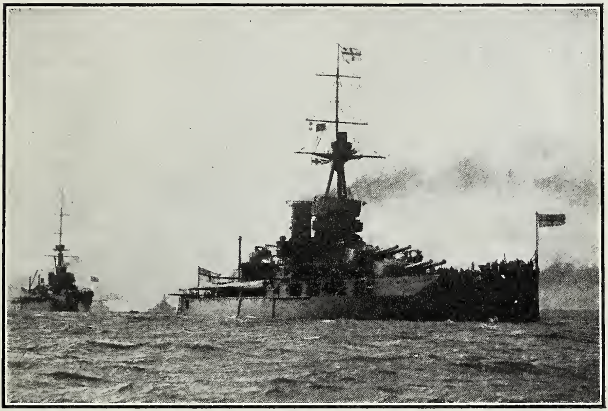
For weeks the crown prince massed his legions and heavy guns and on February 21 the deep, tremendous roar of the artillery announced the opening of a titanic conflict. In twelve hours the Germans threw a million shells. The French had been greatly reënforced, and when on the 25th the Germans surged up the snow-covered slopes of Douaumont (dōō-ō-môɴ′) Hill, wave on wave, the steady fire of the French guns mowed them down in countless numbers. For some days longer the battle raged with indescribable fury. Then came a lull in the German attack. The crisis was past and Verdun was not captured. For many weeks thereafter the baffled crown prince drove his faithful legions to needless slaughter. Late in the autumn the French made a counter drive and won back in a day much of the territory that the Germans had taken in four months. The battle of Verdun cost the Germans half a million men, and the French nearly as many. General Pétain (pā-tăɴ′), the victor of Verdun, was later promoted to the command of all the French forces.

Before the battle of Verdun had ended, another gigantic contest, a hundred miles to the northwest from Verdun, on the banks of the Somme (sôm) River, was begun. For five weeks the battle of the Somme raged almost day and night, and after a pause during August it continued again for six weeks. The Allies — largely British — won 120 square miles of territory and captured nearly 100,000 men. The losses in killed and wounded on both sides were greater than at Verdun.

571. War on the Sea, and Beyond the Seas. — From the battle of Salamis (sec. 98) to the present day sea power has played a great part in the wars of the world; and it greatly affected the World War. Great Britain would soon starve without sea-borne commerce, and her people are aware that they would be at the mercy of any nation that might surpass her on the water. This explains why the British have for centuries kept their navy stronger than that of any other power.

At the beginning of the war the German navy, the second in the world, was yet far inferior to the British navy. The German fleet was soon bottled up in the Baltic Sea and the Kiel Canal, protected by mines and fortifications; the Austro-Hungarian fleet found safety in Adriatic ports, and the merchant marines of both countries disappeared from the high seas.

A few of the swifter German vessels, however, were left at large, and until caught they did what they could to interfere with the commerce of the Allies.[1] Soon the Allies were left in almost undisputed command of the sea, and not till the end of May, 1916, was there an important naval battle. Then came the greatest sea fight in the world's history — the battle of Jutland, May 31. A great German fleet ventured to sail a few miles from its home port. It was attacked by a smaller British fleet under Admiral Beatty, who hoped to hold the enemy until the arrival of the main British fleet under Admiral Jellicoe. Had Jellicoe arrived in time, the German fleet would probably have been destroyed. Even as it was the fight was terrific and colossal. The two fleets (259 vessels in all) from six to ten miles apart battered each other for many hours with their long-range guns.



© *Keystone View Co.*

A BRITISH DREADNAUGHT

This type of battleship is designed to carry the largest guns and is protected by very heavy steel plates sheathing the sides and deck.

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[1] One of these, the *Emden*, roamed the Indian Ocean and the southern seas for three months and destroyed twenty-five merchant vessels; but at last she was destroyed (November 10, 1914), by the *Sydney*, an Australian cruiser.

The losses were about 25 ships and nearly 10,000 men. The Germans inflicted the greater damage, but the British claimed the victory because the German fleet fled to its harbor at nightfall and refused to the end of the war to come out and fight again. Throughout the war, however, German submarines were active, at first against warships and later, more extensively, against unarmed merchant ships.

It was chiefly because of British naval power that the Allies were able to carry on their ocean commerce, and to move their troops freely on the seas, and were free from serious attacks on their coasts or on their colonies. On the other hand, all the German colonies — in Africa and in the Pacific Ocean — were seized by Allied forces. The taking of Kiaochow was chiefly the work of Japan, which entered the struggle in 1914 as an ally of Great Britain, for the purpose of excluding German aggression from the North Pacific. Portugal also entered the war as an ally of Great Britain, in 1916. The British and French colonies were loyal, and aided the mother countries with large armies.

V. EVENTS OF 1917

572. The Russian Revolution. — In Russia conditions were chaotic. Tsar Nicholas II was not a strong leader. The government machinery and the railroad system broke down; there were strikes and riots of hungry workmen and great unrest in the army. On March 15, 1917, the helpless emperor abdicated the throne. What was to become of Russia and her vast population?

At first the Socialist leader, Ker′ensky, assumed control. He wished to unite all Russians in a great republic and to continue the war against the Central Powers. But within a few months the radical Socialists, called Bolsheviki (bôl′-shĕ-vē-kē′) or Bolshevists, gained control,[1] demanded immediate peace, and set up a government of the working class. Finland, however, and other Baltic provinces rebelled against this new order and set up governments of their own.

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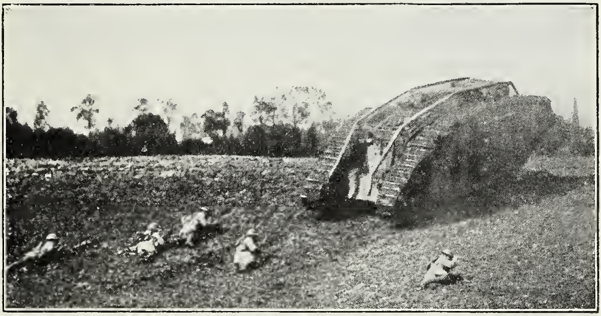
[1] In August, 1917, the tsar and his family had been sent, by the provisional government, to Tobolsk in western Siberia, where they remained until April of the next year. The Bolshevists then transferred them to eastern Russia. In July, 1918, they were put to death — Tsar Nicholas, his wife, and all their children.

573. The Campaigns of 1917. — The collapse of Russia made the task of the other Allies harder, because many Austro-German troops could now be taken from the Russian front for use elsewhere. Yet the Allies won more than they lost in 1917, except in Russia. Early in the year, a continuation of the battle of the Somme forced the Germans to retire to a new line, giving up more than a thousand square miles of territory in northern France. The British also took many villages and strong positions in Belgium. The last great drive of the year was begun by the British near Cambrai (käɴ-brĕ′), November 20. By the use of many tanks (a special kind of heavy armored automobile) they made a surprise attack on a strong part of the new German line, and took much ground and 12,000 prisoners. But a few days later the Germans made a counter attack, regained much of the territory, and captured 9000 prisoners and some of the British tanks. This was the only defeat of the Allies on the Western Front during the whole year.



A Tank in Action

Infantrymen are advancing up hill, behind the tank. The tank is propelled and steered by two caterpillar treads moved like belts — an American invention.

Meanwhile, in October and November, an Austro-German army made a successful drive in northeastern Italy. The Italians lost in a few weeks all they had won in two years and a great deal more. The enemy took many prisoners and guns and pressed back the Italian army as far as the Piave (pyä′vā) River; but here the Italians made a firm stand. Some British and French forces were sent to their assistance.

One of the most noted events of the year was the capture, in December, of Jerusalem, which for centuries had been under the control of the Mohammedan Turks. It was taken by a British force that had advanced from Egypt through Palestine. To Jews and Christians throughout the world the recovery of the Holy City was an event to awaken the tenderest sentiments.

VI. Modern Weapons of War

574. Changes in the Instruments of War. — The World War saw many important changes in the instruments of war. In artillery the advance was very marked. It was demonstrated at Liége and Antwerp that no existing fortifications could stand before modern artillery. The large guns cost about $150,000 each and could throw a 1400-pound shell 25 miles. The Germans at first surpassed the Allies in their artillery, but gradually that advantage was reversed.

The machine gun also (picture on page 675), as well as cannon, was used on a far larger scale than in previous wars. The rifle has not become obsolete, but it has been largely replaced or supplemented by the machine gun, which can send forth its bullets hundreds of times faster.

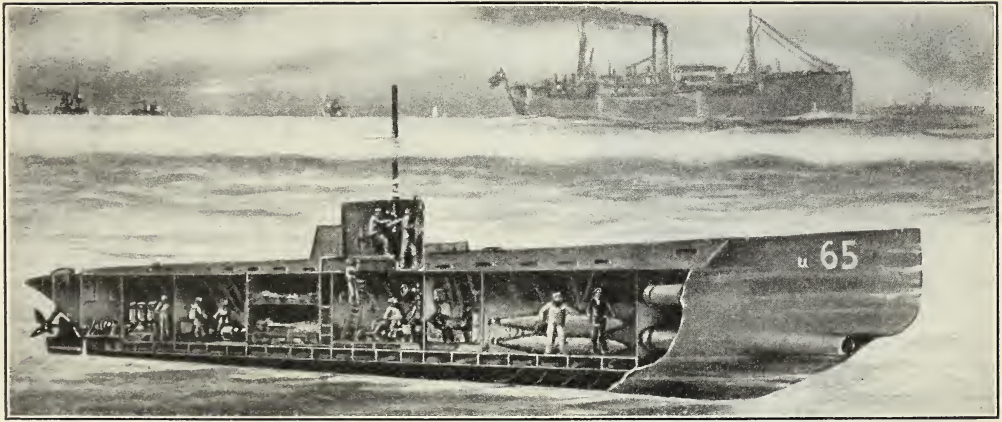
Another notable feature of the war was the extensive use of trenches and of barbed-wire entanglements to protect them from sudden attack. The British developed the tank (picture on page 663), heavily armored, manned with machine guns and small cannon, and able to travel over the roughest ground, smash through barbed wire, cross ordinary trenches, and even push down trees and buildings.

One of the Trenches Used by the French

The trenches were often reënforced by sandbags, and protected on the side toward the enemy by barbed wire entanglements. There were usually two or three lines of trenches, connected by communicating passages, which made it possible to pass from one to another without exposure to the enemy.

Cavalry played no important part in the war, since man and horse could be too easily mown down with the deadly machine guns. The horse was far surpassed by the automobile for the rapid movement of troops, and by the airplane for observation and reconnoitering.

The flying machine was, indeed, the most important war improvement in this generation. The aircraft were of many designs, from the simple monoplane to the great dirigible balloon, or the Zeppelin (so called from Count Zeppelin who invented it in Germany). But the Zeppelin proved a costly failure, because it was no match for the agile airplane in battle. On the other hand, the importance of the airplane grew steadily. Its uses are various. The fighting plane meets its antagonist high in the air, where they engage in a death duel. The bombing planes usually go in fleets and drop explosives on the enemy's works,



SECTIONAL VIEW OF A GERMAN SUBMARINE (U-BOAT)

The submarine was invented in America by John P. Holland, who launched the successful *Holland No. 8* in 1898. He sold his plans to the United States, Great Britain, Japan, and Germany. By 1918 there were in existence hundreds of submarines: some were armed with guns as well as torpedoes, and some carried fuel enough to cross the ocean. When on the surface, a submarine is driven by oil-burning engines at the rate of perhaps 20 miles an hour. When submerged, it is driven more slowly by storage batteries, as they make less heat and throw off less gas to pollute the air. The boat is submerged, and made to rise again, by filling and emptying water tanks; it can also be made to dive quickly, if in motion, by means of rudders. Through the periscope tube, with its mirrors and lenses, the commander can see what is happening above the surface of the water. Near the stern are the two sets of motors, electric and oil. In the center are quarters for the crew, and forward is the torpedo chamber.

often causing great destruction. Of still greater importance are the scouting plane, which reports the enemy's position and movements in detail, sometimes by means of photographs, and the observation plane, which takes the range and gives the necessary directions for the firing of artillery.[1]

All these weapons and war machines, as described above, were lawful according to the accepted principles of international law. But the German forces introduced also flame throwers and the use of poisonous gases; and as poison gas proved to be a powerful weapon, their example was followed by the Allies.

In naval warfare the changes were less remarkable. The most striking feature was the extensive use of submarines. They proved very efficient in destroying merchant vessels; but in attacking ships of war they were of little use because too slow and too vulnerable. Disappointed in the submarine assaults on the British navy, Germany decided to use them on merchant ships, and it was this that provoked the United States to enter the war, as we shall see in our next chapter.

Questions and Topics. — I. By whom were the Poles governed in 1914? What three European empires had irresponsible rulers in 1914? What is meant by an irresponsible ruler? Sum up the three dangerous features of the European situation in 1914.

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[1] The airplane was the invention chiefly of two Americans, the Wright brothers. It was in 1905 that these two men made their first successful airplane flights. During and after the war great advancement in aviation was made. A few of the long-distance flights are as follows: In May, 1919, a United States navy plane flew from New York to Lisbon, Portugal, making landings at Newfoundland and the Azores. In June, 1919, Captain John Alcock and Arthur W. Brown flew from Newfoundland to the coast of Ireland and thus won a $50,000 prize for the first non-stop flight across the Atlantic.

The first non-stop flight from New York to Paris was made by Charles A. Lindbergh, an American, in May, 1927. He was received with great applause abroad and again when he returned to the United States. Still longer were the non-stop flight a few days later of Clarence Chamberlin, from New York to Germany, and the first flight from California to Hawaii made by two young officers of the United States army. The first woman to fly the Atlantic alone was Mrs. Amelia Earhart Putnam, who did so in May, 1932. The first solo flight across the Atlantic westward was made by J. A. Mollison August 19, 1932.

II. Why did Germany invade Belgium? What part did Belgium play in saving Paris from capture? What part did Russia play? Why was the Marne an important battle? What effect had the war on Cyprus and Egypt? What would have been the advantage to the Allies had they taken the Dardanelles?

III. Why did the Germans especially desire to capture Verdun? Why is sea power so important in war? In what way did the British navy do efficient service? What caused the Russian Revolution?

IV. What specially new features were brought out in this war? Why is cavalry of less importance than formerly? What are the military uses of aircraft?

Events and Dates. — Assassination of Francis Ferdinand, June 28, 1914. Austria declares war on Serbia July 28. Battle of the Marne, Sept. 6–10. Poland taken by the Germans, 1915. Battles of Verdun and the Somme, also the naval battle of Jutland, 1916. Fall of the Russian monarchy, 1917. Capture of Jerusalem, December, 1917.

For Further Reading. — Davis, *Roots of the War*. This is an excellent short account of European conditions and of the causes and beginnings of the war. There are many good histories of the war, such as those by McKinley, Coulomb and Gerson; Pollard; and Bassett.

A very good, accurate history of the World War, in 30 double pages, is given in Compton's *Pictured Encyclopedia*, vol. 15.

CHAPTER XLVII

AMERICA IN THE WAR

I. Great Preparations

575. Why We Entered the War. — At the beginning of the war President Wilson issued a proclamation of neutrality, but as the months passed the relations of the United States with Germany became more and more strained. It was found that many German spies in the country, under the direction of the German embassy, were inciting strikes, and plotting to dynamite munition factories and to blow up ships leaving our ports.[1]

In May, 1915, the great British liner the *Lusitania* was torpedoed and sunk off the Irish coast by a German submarine, and over eleven hundred passengers were drowned, of whom more than a hundred were Americans. This event awakened widespread resentment in the United States. President Wilson made vigorous protest to the German government and demanded that in future passenger ships be not sunk without giving passengers and crew a chance to escape in their lifeboats. Germany at length made a conditional promise to comply with the President's demand. But at the end of January, 1917, she withdrew this promise and announced that she would at once begin a submarine warfare against all ships, belligerent and neutral alike, within a certain zone around the coasts of her enemies.

President Wilson promptly broke off diplomatic relations with Germany, armed our merchant vessels for defense, and awaited an overt act. It was not long before several of our ships were sunk by the submarines, and several American lives lost in the sinking of other ships. On April 6, 1917, Congress declared a state of war with the German Empire.

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[1] The reason for such proceedings, Germans maintained, was that our citizens were sending munitions to the Allies and not to the Central Powers (because prevented by the British navy). To the protests of Austria and Germany our government answered that it is a right recognized by international law for neutrals to sell munitions to a nation at war, that Germany and Austria had often done so, and that it would be an unneutral act for us, single-handed, to change such a custom in the midst of a war.

There was a deeper underlying cause that brought us into the war. There was in Great Britain a deep-seated belief that the ultimate object of Germany was not only to get control of the Balkans and Asia Minor and to reduce France to a second-class power, but also to overthrow the British Empire and, on the whole, to obliterate the world's progress in democracy of the last hundred years. Whether this belief was well-founded or not, it is certain that the American people came to adopt the English view; they felt it a duty to go to the rescue of the hard-pressed Allies and to do their part in helping, as President Wilson said, to "make the world safe for democracy."

576. The Submarine Campaign. — It was well known that the United States could not put a large army in the field in less than a year. Germany hoped to win the war within this year. First, she would, by means of her submarines, cut off the food supply of the British, and at the same time prevent the United States from sending troops and supplies across the Atlantic; second, she would mass her armies upon the Western Front, and make a drive upon Paris greater than any hitherto attempted.

Germany had made costly miscalculations from the start, such as assuming that England would not fight for "a scrap of paper," and that Italy would come in on her side or remain neutral; but her crowning blunder was made when she goaded the United States, with its boundless potential military power, into war by her decree for a ruthless submarine campaign.

For several months after the launching of the submarine campaign there was deadly fear in the Allied world that it would be successful. The sinking of ships in European waters showed an alarming increase. The high tide was reached in April and May, 1917. During a period of three weeks the lurking assassins of the sea sent 240 vessels to the bottom. Then the ebb began.

A Destroyer

Destroyers are swift ships, not very large, not heavily armed, not armored. They are used especially to destroy torpedo boats and submarines. The destroyer in the picture is also throwing out a smoke screen to conceal the ships behind it.

Many were the devices for fighting the submarine — destroyers, huge iron nets, mine fields, depth bombs, and airplanes and balloons hovering above the water watching for dark spots near the surface. With a bravery worthy of a better cause the submarine crews plunged into the dark waters on their mission of destruction, but many of them met disaster and found their final resting place on the ocean's bed. As the summer passed their victims became fewer and fewer, while every shipyard in America and Great Britain was working day and night to replace the losses. By the coming of the winter it was clearly seen, even by the Germans, that the submarine campaign was a failure. By the time America was ready to transport a great army to Europe, the menace had subsided, and not a single American troop ship was lost on the way from our country to Europe.

577. Efficient Democracy. — The general belief that a democratic people are less capable of high efficiency than an autocratic government was disproved by the war. Indeed, an autocratic people, who act and think at the direction of superiors, may seem eminently efficient, but a part of their energy is consumed in keeping screwed up to the highest pitch all the time; also they lack individual initiative. A democratic people, who live and act under rules and laws of their own making, may be careless, even slovenly, in many of their ways; but the greater is their reserve strength, and in time of crisis they may rise to supreme heights of energy and efficiency such as no autocracy can ever reach. Never was this fact brought out more strikingly than when America enlisted in the World War. Never did Prussia show such fine powers of organization, such dynamic energy, or such magnificent enthusiasm.

Our preparations for war were on a colossal scale. The registration of young men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one, on June 5, 1917, totaled 9,925,751; and later, when all other men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five were registered, the grand total footed up 24,234,021. This vast potential army was carefully sifted by the selective draft and only those most fit were called to the military camps.

In the magnitude of our shipbuilding no other country approached us. Ships of steel, of wood, and of concrete were built, and the shipyards, many of which were constructed for war emergency, kept up their deafening clang day and night. Before the end of the war the government had taken control of the railroads of the country, also the express companies, the telegraph and telephone systems. In the towns and villages along the great railroad lines east and west, the people gathered daily to see the trainloads of boys in khaki speeding for the eastern seaboard to embark for the battlefields of France.

The Liberty Loans were oversubscribed by hundreds of millions; farmers redoubled their efforts to furnish an adequate food supply; women and children sacrificed their time and money to aid in supplying the wants of the soldier boys; men of wide business experience gave their time for a dollar a year to aid in the mobilizing of resources of the nation. With scarcely a murmur the people accepted the meatless days and wheatless meals in order to save food for the Allied nations at war. A request by the government that the people refrain from using automobiles on Sundays was respected almost everywhere, and thus a million barrels of gasoline were saved for the army.[1]

To what end did the American people rise so grandly to the call of the government? Not to gain territory nor to win indemnities, nor yet to make a great name in the world, nor to take revenge on an enemy. They did it in pursuance of an ideal; they did it because they believed that human liberty was in the balance, that civilization was in danger, and they were ready to fight to the last in order to " make the world safe for democracy."

578. The American Navy. — Under the brilliant admiral William S. Sims, a strong naval force arrived in British waters early in May, 1917. Queenstown, Ireland, was chosen as the American naval base, and our navy found much to do. Its greatest work was perhaps in hunting submarines and in convoying troop ships and supply ships on their way to Europe. Another remarkable achievement was the laying of a barrage of mines from the coast of Norway to Scotland, a distance of more than two hundred miles. It contained 80,000 mines. Its purpose was to hinder submarines from reaching the Atlantic, as the English Channel was blocked by another barrage.

Our naval losses in the war were slight. Concerning our navy a leading British naval expert said: " When the war is over we can form some conception of the debt that we owe to the American navy for the manner in which it has coöperated, not only in connection with convoy system, but in fighting the submarines."

579. Transporting the Army. — The transplanting of our A. E. F. (American Expeditionary Force) to the coast of France was the greatest movement of its kind in history. The youthful soldier, after a brief training in camp, was sent to an eastern seaport, where he embarked with thousands of his fellows upon the stormy Atlantic. It was a wonderful experience, this voyage to the lands of their ancestors. Great numbers of the young soldiers had never been far from home. Many were educated, and to them the voyage was an opening to wonderful vistas of what they had known only in books and song and story. Many of them were illiterate, and to them Europe had meant an unknown somewhere far beyond the seas. To all the voyage was a strange and wonderful chapter in life's experience never to be forgotten.

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[1] Another economy was achieved by restrictions in the use of artificial light. To reduce the demand for such light, also, clocks were set ahead an hour — the origin of "daylight saving" in this country.

The American ships proved inadequate to transport so great an army, and many were leased from the British.[1] The German and Austrian ships interned in American waters at the beginning of the war, numbering more than a hundred, were also pressed into the service.[2]

General John J. Pershing was appointed commander in chief of the A. E. F., and soon proved himself a strong and able leader. He arrived in England on June 6, 1917, and soon proceeded to France. In both countries he was received with great demonstrations of joy, but still greater was the joy when later in the same month our first battle troops arrived in France. Month by month the number carried "over there" by the transports increased until in mid-summer, 1918, it reached 300,000 a month. When the war closed more than two million American soldiers had been landed in France.

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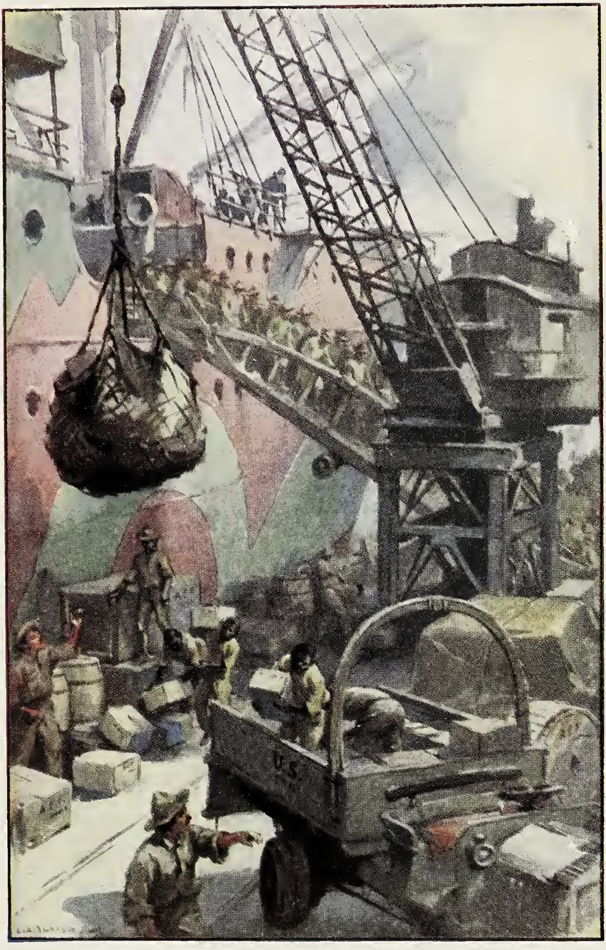
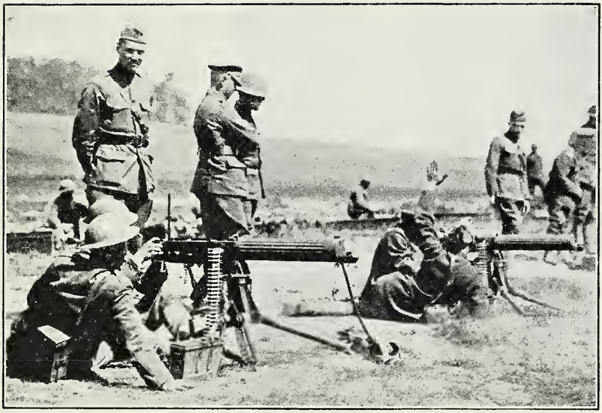
[1] The transports that carried our men and their supplies abroad were painted in bizarre designs of various colors, to conceal or distort the outline of the ship. The painting of the ships was done under the direction of an artist, and so effective was the device that it was almost impossible to observe the ship's course accurately. Similar "camouflage" was used also for the concealment of cannon, motor cars, and buildings near the battle fronts on land. At night no lights were allowed aboard ship lest the whereabouts of the transport be discovered by the enemy. Immense piers and warehouses were built by American engineers at Brest and St. Nazaire on the French coast, where the troops and supplies were landed.

[2] Among these was the German *Vaterland*, one of the largest steamships ever built. This great vessel, rechristened the *Leviathan*, carried as many as 12,000 American soldiers in a single voyage. The ships went in flotillas, small groups, and were carefully guarded by destroyers. One or two British transports with American soldiers on board fell victims to the submarines; but no American transport was lost on the outward voyage. A few "empties" were lost on the return voyage when less carefully guarded.



Landing American Troops and Supplies in France

In addition to the soldiers, thousands of skilled workmen and common laborers were sent across. Hundreds of buildings were erected on French soil by American men and money, in which to receive our troops; great training camps were constructed and hundreds of miles of railroads were built. Food supplies, machinery, munitions of war, were sent to France from America in great quantities. Our troops also were given their final training in France under French and British officers. In many things they were thoroughly drilled by experts, and when ready for battle, they proved to be most efficient soldiers. The European armies, though more experienced, were jaded and weary with long service. Many of the soldiers were middle-aged or elderly men, or had recovered from wounds in the hospitals. The Americans were young, dashing, virile, and eager for the fray.



Machine Guns

This picture shows American soldiers in France being instructed by a British officer in the use of a machine gun. The metal helmets worn by the soldiers were used in all the armies for protection against shrapnel.

II. THE GREAT FINAL DRIVE: END OF THE WAR

580. Trembling in the Balance. — In the spring of 1918, nearly four years after the colossal conflict had begun, no one could be sure of the outcome. Germany had made peace with Bolshevist Russia and had thus released many thousands of troops for use on the Western Front, and it was here that the final blow was sure to fall. The Central Powers were still hopeful in spite of the fact that the submarine campaign had failed and that the American soldiers were coming in hundreds of thousands.

In the early spring of 1918 Germany decided on her greatest gamble. She saw that in order to win she must do so quickly, that year, before the Americans could arrive in such numbers as to turn the tide against her. The winter in Germany was one of prodigious activity. Enormous stores of munitions were stacked up on the Western Front and the army was drilled to the highest degree of efficiency. A feeling of dread pervaded the whole Allied world.

On March 21 the great offensive began. Commanded by their ablest leaders, Lu′dendorff and von Hindenburg, the Germans swept forward, wave on wave, on a fifty-mile front. Thus began the greatest military campaign in the history of the world. The onrush continued for eight days before the Allied armies checked the enemy almost in the environs of the city of Amiens.

In this first great dash the Germans had captured 90,000 prisoners and 1300 heavy guns and had advanced at some points thirty-five miles. But the German high command was not pleased with the victory. They had won much territory and had inflicted great losses on their enemy, but they had lost more heavily than the Allies in killed and wounded, and they were far from their base of supplies.

On March 29 the Allies made a move which was to prove of unmeasured importance in winning a final victory — they chose a commander in chief of all the Allied armies in the world.

The great honor and great burden fell on Ferdinand Foch (fŏsh), whom General Joffre, after the battle of the Marne, proclaimed "the greatest strategist in Europe." Marshal Foch had reached the age of sixty-seven, had seen service in the Franco-Prussian war, and had written several books on military science. Before his appointment the Allied armies had been greatly handicapped by a divided command, but from this time till the end of the war they were to move on all fronts at the direction of this one master mind.

Marshal Foch

Another terrific German drive began on April 9 and was continued to the end of the month. Day after day the battle raged with tremendous fury; but the Allied lines were unbroken. In later months the Germans again and again threw their gigantic weight against the enemy. They reached the valley of the Marne. A few miles more and they could throw shells into Paris and destroy the city at their leisure.[1]

But the German strength was fast waning. The army was far from its base of supplies; its best troops had been cut down.

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[1] The Germans were already bombarding Paris at intervals with two or three great guns at a distance of 76 miles. But because of the small number of such long-range guns, and because the distance made accurate aim impossible, the bombardment had little effect.

Devastated Village near Belleau Wood.

Part of the battlefield where American marines drove back the Germans in a two-day battle June 10–12, 1918

More and more Americans were coming to the front to reënforce the Allied armies.

Then began the great counter-offensive. Marshal Foch had waited for the right moment. He attacked on a sixty-mile front, July 18, with all the cumulated power he had been gathering for the purpose. The hour had struck — and it proved also the knell of the German Empire. The invaders began to give way. Slowly they were forced back over part of the ground they had traversed, covered with the indescribable wreckage of war.

581. War in the Air. — Nothing in the annals of warfare is more spectacular, more daring, more romantic, more grandly heroic than the war among the clouds, which characterized the World War from beginning to end.

With an utter defiance of danger and death the youthful soldier soars in the azure sky in search of an antagonist on a mission the same as his own. Here, perhaps a thousand yards above the raging battle below, he meets his foe and the two engage in a duel to the death. They sail round and round, or one darts beneath or soars above the other, each striving for the opportunity to pour into the other a deadly machine gun volley. At length one is hit; his airplane bursts into flames and plunges to earth a burning wreck. The victor returns to his base to receive the plaudits of his fellows, or flies away in search of another victim.[1]

After months of experimenting our experts developed the Liberty motor, which proved to be an excellent aircraft engine. Before the close of the war we had delivered 15,000 airplanes for service (though scarcely 2000 had been sent to France) and many thousands more were in course of construction. Great numbers of our young men went into training in the aviation fields, and many of them saw actual service at the front.

On March 23 and 24, 1918, a few days after the great German drive began, occurred the greatest of air battles. Far above the tremendous battle that was raging on the land the air fighters met their antagonists, single-handed or in squadrons, and with marvelous daring engaged in their death duels. With many it was their last engagement. Their shattered planes and their mangled bodies were strewn over the battle ground. Others were victorious and lived to tell the story. The Allies had the clear advantage and by the end of the second day the Germans were driven from the air.

582. Surrender of Bulgaria, Turkey, and Austria. — Before returning to the final scenes on the Western Front let us take a view of the war in other lands. Constantine, the pro-German king of Greece, had been forced to abdicate (1917), and the Greeks were aiding the Allies. General Foch ordered an Allied assault which forced Bulgaria to surrender, in September, 1918.

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[1] The airman who had brought down as many as five enemy planes, each attested by three witnesses, was called an ace. The most famous of the American aces were Lieutenant Lufberry, who was killed in action, and Lieutenant Rickenbacker, who lived through the war. Fonck and Guynemer (gēn-mĕr′) held the highest record among the French aces. More than seventy-five air victories were credited to Fonck, six in a single day. At one time he won three victories within a few minutes, and two of the victims proved to be the two leading aces of the German army.

General Allenby, nine months after capturing Jerusalem (sec. 573), destroyed a large Turkish army and took 70,000 prisoners. Turkey, which had disturbed the peace of Europe for half a thousand years, was now utterly crushed. She sued for peace and was put out of the war in October.

In June, 1918, Austria had attempted a mighty drive on the Italian army, but it lasted only a few days. Four months later the Italians, ordered by Marshal Foch, made a vigorous forward movement, took 100,000 prisoners, and forced Austria to surrender (November 4). The empire of Austria-Hungary was torn to pieces. The deposed Emperor Charles left the country a few months later, and thus fell the House of Hapsburg.

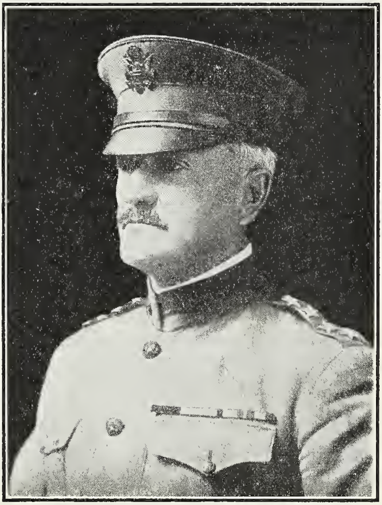
583. **Again the Western Front.** — We left the opposing armies in France at the turning of the tide. The Germans had not won their goal. They had failed to capture Paris or to reach the sea. Now it was too late. Their reserves were used up. On the other hand, the Allies were gathering strength, and they moved forward with irresistible power, step by step, now at one point and now at another, giving the Germans no rest.

By the end of August the Germans had lost all the land they had gained in their spring drive. On the 6th of September the whole Allied front, a hundred miles long, moved forward like a tidal wave. The Germans fell back everywhere. City after city, hundreds of villages they had captured, hills and strongholds of all kinds, they reluctantly yielded to the advancing foe. On September 12 the American army under General Pershing took the St. Mihiel (săɴ me-yĕl′) salient and 16,000 prisoners. By the 18th of October the Belgian coast, including the German submarine base, had been retaken by the Allies.

584. **America's Greatest Battle.** — One of the outstanding features of this colossal campaign was the battle of the Meuse-Argonne (mûz′-ar-gō̂n′), a contest between Americans and Ger-

mans. It was America's greatest battle, far surpassing the conflicts at New Orleans, Shiloh, or Gettysburg.

The Germans still occupied the very important valley of the Meuse River north of Verdun, and held the territory westward of that river through the Forest of Argonne, a distance of nearly twenty miles. It was of immense importance to the Germans to hold this section because it guarded the trunk railway line through Sedan, one of the only two railways by which all the German armies in France and Belgium were supplied, and over which flight was necessary in case of defeat.



General Pershing

It was the most difficult battle ground in France — hills, forests, swamps, and ravines. For four years the Germans had occupied it and had fortified it with cement works and barbed wire as no other part of the Western Front was fortified. It was here that Foch ordered a general advance to be carried out under General Pershing. The Americans had one advantage — superiority of numbers; but the Germans fought behind formidable defenses, and the majority of the Americans had never before been under fire.

The great battle began on September 26 on a front of nearly twenty miles. The preliminary artillery bombardment from the

HEROES OF THE MEUSE-ARGONNE

From an official army photograph. Soldiers of the First Division A. E. F., near the Meuse River, November 9, 1918. This division had twice been in line during the Meuse-Argonne battle, besides taking part in previous battles.

American side was tremendous. It is said that the amount of ammunition used there was greater than all that was consumed in the whole four years of our Civil War.

The greatest obstacle encountered by the Americans was the deadly machine guns. These in great numbers were hidden in bushes, in concrete emplacements, or on the hilltops, usually in "nests" with three or four men in each nest. These men, left behind to protect the retreating army, often fought to the death; and thousands of American soldiers fell before their deadly aim.

The American army, however, pushed steadily on. By the 7th of November they had reached Sedan, made famous in 1870 by the great French surrender (sec. 495). The railroad system was cut. The goal of the campaign was achieved.

The battle of the Meuse-Argonne was one of the great battles of the war and one of the most important. But for this battle the Germans would no doubt have held their position during the coming winter. The war would have been prolonged into the next year, or there would have been a negotiated peace instead of a peace by surrender. Nearly 800,000 Americans were engaged in this gigantic battle, but only about 300,000 at any one time. The divisions, as they became weary and war-torn, were replaced by fresh divisions. Our losses in killed and wounded in this battle were greater, it is estimated, than the entire force commanded by Napoleon at Waterloo, or by Meade at Gettysburg. In one great cemetery among the Argonne hills sleep 30,000 American slain. Our army lost also about 4000 by capture, while they captured 26,059 of the enemy.

585. **Fall of the German Empire; the Armistice.** — For some weeks before the close of hostilities the Germans had foreseen the outcome and had been making frantic efforts to bring about an armistice. Several notes passed between the German chancellor and President Wilson through the medium of the Swiss government. The chancellor declared that Germany was ready to make peace on terms laid down in a speech made by Wilson the preceding January. The President replied (Oct. 14) that an armistice must provide for the military supremacy of the Allies; called for the abolition of every "arbitrary power that could separately, secretly, and of its single choice, disturb the peace of the world"; and flatly declared that the kaiser's government was of this nature. This uncompromising reply met with hearty approval in all the Allied countries.

Early in November the German war lords were brought to a realization of the gravity of the situation by uprisings of the people. The men of the navy rebelled when ordered to make a final dash against the Allied fleets. As it meant certain death, they refused to give their lives in a dying cause. The people throughout the empire were seething with resentment against the authorities and demanding immediate peace. And peace came on November 11, one of the great days in the world's history. The armistice was signed at the eleventh hour on the eleventh day of the eleventh month of the year, — the great guns ceased to roar and silence reigned over the far-flung battle front.

Two days before the armistice the German kaiser abandoned his army and his people and fled into Holland, as did also his son, the crown prince. The German Empire, after an existence of forty-eight years, was overthrown by the people. A provisional government of a republican form was set up in Germany.

The armistice meant little else than surrender. Germany was obliged to agree, among other things, to give up Alsace-Lorraine, to withdraw her armies from France, Belgium, Russia, and other lands, to surrender all her submarines and most of her battle fleet, also great numbers of cannon, machine guns, airplanes, cars, locomotives, and motor trucks, to renounce her recent treaties with Russia and Roumania, and to pay for repairing war damages in Belgium, France, and other countries.

SIDE TALK

A Modern Hero. — In August, 1914, a towheaded English youth in the early twenties, undersized and frail of body, a graduate of Oxford University, who had spent several years in the study of archæology in the Orient, attempted to enlist in the British army as a private. The board of examiners rejected him with, " Run home to your mother, my boy, and wait till the next war." Four years later the same youth, having led 200,000 men in battle, having played a great part in establishing an Arabian king on his throne and in winning the World War, refused a knighthood from the British crown, and a generalship in the army.

The name of the young man is Thomas Lawrence. After his rejection by the board he went back to the Orient and renewed his acquaintance with the Arabian people, their life and language. Then a great thought came to young Lawrence — nothing less than arousing the Arabians against Turkish rule, under which they had chafed for five hundred years, and thus rendering a priceless service to the Allies in the World War. He donned the native Arabian costume, lived and ate with the Bed'ouins, and spent many months in allaying the deadly feuds among the tribes and in arousing the country against the Turks.

For ages these Bedouin tribes had engaged in deadly feuds with one another. One old chief (or sheik, as they are called), who became a great friend of Lawrence, had led a hundred expeditions and had slain scores of men with his own hand. His wrath against the Turks waxed fierce. One day he suddenly remembered that he was wearing a set of false teeth made by a Turkish dentist. Taking them from his mouth with an appropriate Mohammedan oath, he dashed them to pieces on a rock. Thereafter for two months he lived on rice and milk until an English dentist from Egypt could be secured to replace the lost molars.

Lawrence became intimately associated with Hussein (hŏŏ-sān′), the governor of Mecca, a descendant of the prophet Mohammed of the thirty-sixth generation. Lawrence did much in making Hussein the independent king of Hedjaz (hĕj-äz′), and much also for Feisal (fā-säl′), the son of Hussein, in setting up a claim to the kingship of Syria. Hussein after the war became the official head of all the millions of Moslems in the world. He adopted many modern customs, but at heart he remained a true Bedouin and loved to roam the desert astride a mule.

With wonderful skill and tact young Lawrence appealed to the patriotism of the desert tribes, and it was he above all others who created the Arabian War of Liberation. When General Allenby, having captured Jerusalem, moved northward, he was joined by a great Arabian army under the general leadership of Thomas Lawrence, to whom is due in large part the Allied victory over Turkey (sec. 582).

Questions and Topics. — I. Why are the American people more than most peoples devoted to peace? In what way, in your opinion, was Germany's submarine campaign a serious blunder? Why is a democracy more efficient in time of crisis than any other form of government? What did the American navy do in the war? Describe the transporting of our army to France; our preparations in France.

II. Describe the German drive in the spring of 1918; the turn of the tide. Why did Bulgaria, Turkey, and Austria agree separately to make peace? Describe the greatest battle in American history; the fall of the German Empire. What sort of government did the German people set up? Describe the signing of and contents of the armistice. What is an armistice?

Events and Dates. — The United States declares war on Germany, April 6, 1917. Two million American troops are landed in France, 1917–1918. Great German drive on Western Front begins March 21, 1918. Turning of the tide, July 18. Surrender of Bulgaria in September; of Turkey, in October; of Austria, early in November. Armistice with Germany signed November 11, 1918.

For Further Reading. — Histories of the war; see page 668. Bassett, *Our War with Germany.* Palmer, *Our Greatest Battle.*

CHAPTER XLVIII

RESULTS OF THE WORLD WAR

I. THE PEACE TREATIES

No one can measure the cost of a war, because it is impossible to measure the value of the human lives that have been taken. War relentlessly destroys young men wholesale. Who can tell how many matchless leaders, in literature and science and other fields of human endeavor, were cut down in their youth by the great war of 1914–1918? The loss to the world can never be even estimated.

But aside from this unknown quantity, the time may come when the World War, like our Revolution and our Civil War, may be regarded more as a blessing than as a curse to mankind. Certain it is that it brought much good as well as evil. It led to important advances in medical and other sciences. It gave a wonderful impetus to the cause of democracy and brought self-government to millions of people. Also, it brought into existence a great international organization for the purpose of fostering a spirit of brotherhood among the nations, of solving international problems, and of keeping the peace of the world in the future.

586. Scope of the War. — It is possible that Austria-Hungary had more to do in bringing about the war than Germany; but Germany proved herself immeasurably stronger than Austria or any of her other allies. In fact Germany occupied so conspicuous a position that her allies at times seemed almost forgotten.

Whatever the aims of Germany may have been, it is certain that she might have won without war, in a few more decades, almost all that she aspired to. She had made marvelous progress in manufacturing and science; her goods were sold and eagerly bought the world around; she had great possessions in Africa and concessions in Turkey; she might have eventually absorbed Holland and even the Austrian Empire; she had in forty years won a wonderful standing among the powers of the world, and her prestige was increasing every day. Germany threw away the opportunities before her, and staked her future on a throw of the dice — and lost.

All other wars in historic times are dwarfed in comparison with this stupendous human conflict. The losses in human life and treasure were great beyond comparison.[1]

The nations at war comprised almost the entire world. In Europe the only neutrals were Spain, Switzerland, Holland, and the three Scandinavian countries. Australia, nearly all of Asia and Africa, most of North America, and parts of South America were involved in the mighty struggle.

Momentous changes in governments were brought about by the war. Three great empires, Russia, Austria, and Germany, ceased to exist as empires, and two of them, Russia and Austria, were literally torn to pieces. The emperors of all three lost their thrones, as did also the kings of Greece and of Bulgaria. The rearranging of national boundary lines and the determining of the form of government for each nation proved to be a long and difficult process.

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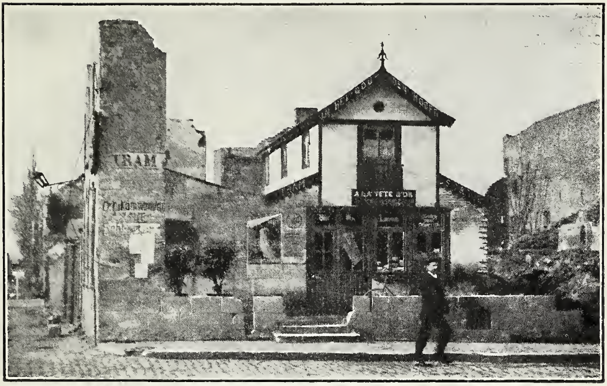
[1] Figures compiled from different sources do not fully agree, and absolute accuracy can never be attained. The following statistics are perhaps as nearly accurate as possible. About 60,000,000 men were mobilized on both sides. Of these about 20,000,000 of the Central Powers and 25,000,000 of the Allies were under arms. Those who were killed in battle or who died of wounds numbered 7,800,000; other deaths caused by the war (starvation, exposure, and massacre) reached 9,000,000, making a total of 16,800,000 deaths caused by the war. In addition, six million wounded men were permanently disabled. Of the men engaged about 16% were killed (one for every 7600 shots fired) and nearly 40% wounded. Of the more than two million American soldiers sent to France, more than half were engaged in battle, 50,000 were killed or died of wounds, 58,000 died of disease, and more than 200,000 were wounded. On the sea the Allies lost about 5000 vessels of all classes, aggregating 15,000,000 tons. Eight million horses, of which about half were killed, were used in the war. The airplanes in the war numbered 240,000, of which 75,000 were destroyed.

The devastation wrought by the war was incalculable. Cities and villages were ruined or utterly destroyed over thousands of square miles. Every town and village in warring Europe mourned its unreturning brave. Widows and fatherless children numbered millions. For a half century to come hundreds of thousands of maimed and crippled men will be seen plodding the streets of the cities of Europe. Such was the human wreckage cast up by the great storm. But with all this, when the news of the armistice was flashed over the world, the rejoicing in the Allied countries was unrestrained in its enthusiasm.

587. Conditions in Europe. — The signing of the armistice brought the end of hostilities on the battlefield, but the enormous devastation wrought by the war stood out in greater relief on this account. While the armies were fighting the world's attention was centered on the battle front; with the coming of peace the awful havoc in the trail of the armies became the more apparent. The devastated regions were almost entirely in the Allied countries. It is a remarkable fact that the side that lost the war had been the aggressor and the side that won had scarcely stepped foot on enemy soil during the whole course of the conflict.

The invasion of any country by an army always means much damage to property, but in this war the damage was very great. A large section of northern France was left uninhabitable, and in many cities the factories were systematically looted. Great parts of Belgium, Poland, Roumania, Serbia, and Italy were overrun by invading armies and in every instance the devastation was frightful. The homes of millions of people were robbed or destroyed, business was paralyzed, farms ruined by bursting shells and trampling armies; in some districts even the vines and fruit trees were wantonly cut down. Great numbers of people died of starvation and exposure, and millions that survived were broken in health for want of proper food and shelter. Mr. Herbert Hoover, the American food administrator, reported that among the Yugoslavs alone there were 500,000 fatherless children, of whom 150,000 were destitute.



Beginning of Reconstruction in a Belgian Village

The little restaurant was built in the midst of the ruins of war. The French sign above the door, *À la Tête d'Or,* means "The Gold Head." The same words in the Flemish language appear in the sign on the end of the roof, *In het Gouden Hoofd.* Belgium, it will be remembered, is a bilingual country (sec. 550). At the street corner is a half-obliterated sign in German, a reminder of the recent enemy occupation.

As so many men had for four years been engaged in war and in manufacturing munitions, instead of productive industry, there was a world-wide shortage of food, clothing, coal, and other things. In carrying on the war, much paper money was issued. For these reasons prices rose. Wages rose also, but there was much unrest among workmen, and many strikes.

588. The Peace Conference. — The great problems growing out of the war were settled by a congress of the nations held in Paris and Versailles in the early months of 1919. Here were gathered the greatest political leaders of the world — Lloyd George, premier of Great Britain; Orlando, premier of Italy; Clemenceau (klā-mäɴ-sō′), the head of the French cabinet; and President Wilson of the United States. These were known as the "Big Four." Each of these countries and Japan had five delegates, and the delegates were accompanied by many expert assistants. In all, thirty-two nations were represented in the congress.[1] The defeated nations, neutral nations, and Russia were not represented.[2]

A marked contrast is notable between this congress and the Congress of Vienna of 1815 (sec. 435). The Congress of Vienna was made up almost wholly of emperors, kings, and great nobles; in the Congress of Paris there was not a crowned head and only one member of noble rank. The difference shows a wonderful change in the world's government. It means that in the hundred years since the Congress of Vienna the government of the nations had passed from the hands of royal rulers to the hands of the people.

Never before had a body of men met with a responsibility so great as that devolving on this Peace Conference at Paris. The major problems with which it had to grapple were three: (1) the remaking of the map of Europe; (2) disposing of the conquered German colonies in Africa, Asia, and the Pacific; (3) providing for future world peace by creating a League of Nations.

Many important compromises and decisions were made practically by the "Big Four," and later ratified at full meetings of the conference. Some of the compromises were hard to make. President Wilson objected to the secret treaties by which Great Britain and France had promised to Italy and Japan certain rewards in the day of settlement; but these countries insisted that the treaties were binding and could be altered only by mutual agreement. It was difficult indeed for the powers to yield their old notions of military protection and secret diplomacy for the American "dreams and ideals." But at many points they did yield to the great strength of the American position, which lay largely in the fact that we had acted from motives of altruism and now asked for no territorial gains. It was chiefly through the insistence of Wilson that the League of Nations was embodied in the treaty, and that France was dissuaded from annexing all German territory west of the Rhine. And when Italy laid claim to Fiume (fyo͞o′mā) on the eastern shore of the Adriatic, a city needed by the Yugoslavs as their natural outlet, Wilson made a determined stand against the seizure.

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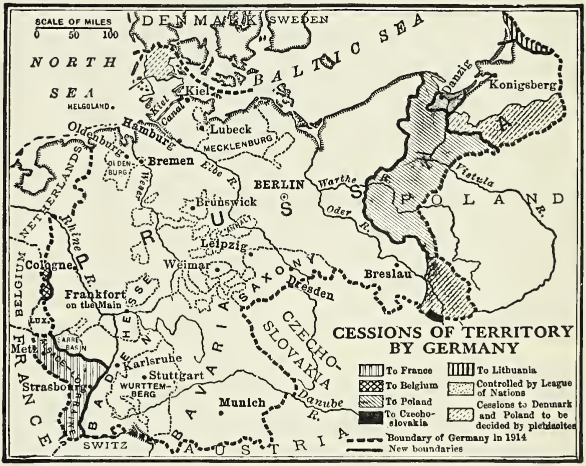
[1] Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, British Empire (also, separately, Australia, Canada, India, New Zealand, South Africa), China, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Ecuador, France, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Hedjaz, Honduras, Italy, Japan, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Siam, United States, Uruguay, and Yugoslavia.

[2] In refusing the defeated enemy a place at the council table the Allies disregarded an age-old custom. The German people, after repudiating their emperor and overthrowing his government, had reason to feel aggrieved at not having any representative in the conference, as Talleyrand had been permitted to present the cause of France at the Congress of Vienna (sec. 435).

589. **The Peace Treaties.** — The treaty with Germany, as finally agreed to, included these points: (1) A constitution was provided for a League of Nations with covenants designed to prevent future wars of aggression (secs. 602–606). (2) Alsace-Lorraine, which was taken from France by Germany in 1870 (sec. 495), was reannexed to France. (3) Germany gave to France the coal mines of the Saar (zär), or Sarre (sȧr), Basin in compensation for French coal mines destroyed by the Germans. It was provided that this territory should be governed by a commission under the League of Nations and that after fifteen years the people of the Saar Basin should vote whether to remain under that government, or to be annexed to France, or to go back to Germany; they voted, January 13, 1935, for return to Germany. (4) Small areas on the border were ceded to Belgium, to Czechoslovakia (chĕk-o-slo-văk′i-a), and (through the Allies) to Lithuania. (5) Most of the Polish territory long held by Prussia (sec. 366) was ceded to Poland. Danzig, however, was made a free city under the control of the League of Nations, with provisions guaranteeing to Poland the use of docks and railroads.

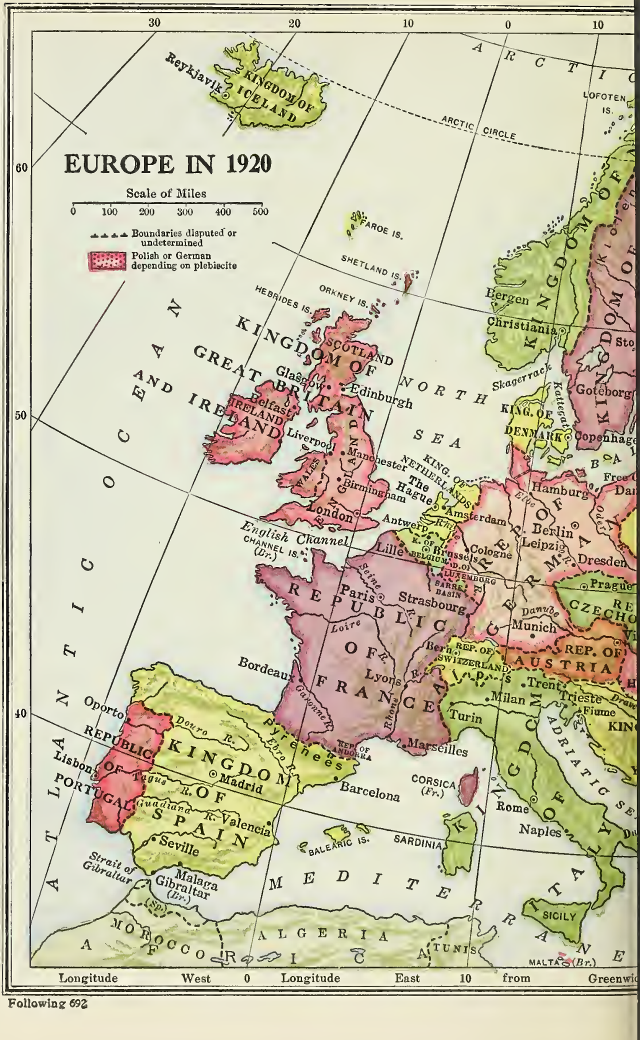
Furthermore, (6) the treaty provided for plebiscites (plĕb′i-sĭts), or votes of the people, to determine whether other districts should be ceded to Poland and to Denmark. The plebiscite district on the border of Denmark was divided into two zones; the northern zone voted in favor of Denmark, and was thus reunited to that country after a separation of half a century (sec. 491), but the southern zone voted to remain in Germany. The plebiscite district north of Poland likewise voted to remain German, and so too did most of the district on the upper Oder. In all, Germany lost only about one eighth of her territory, most of it parts of Prussia.


SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100
DENMARK
SWEDEN
NORTH SEA
HELGOLAND
BALTIC SEA
Kiel
Kiel Canal
Lubeck
MECKLENBURG
Hamburg
Oldenburg
OLDENBURG
Bremen
Weser R.
Elbe R.
BERLIN
Brunswick
PRUSSIA
ANHALT
Leipzig
Weimar
SAXONY
Dresden
Breslau
Warthe R.
Oder R.
Vistula R.
Danzig
Konigsberg
POLAND
NETHERLANDS
BELGIUM
Cologne
Rhine R.
Frankfort on the Main
HESSE
LUX.
SARRE BASIN
Metz
Strasbourg
ALSACE-LORRAINE
FRANCE
BADEN
Karlsruhe
Stuttgart
WURTTEMBERG
BAVARIA
Munich
Danube R.
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA
AUSTRIA
SWITZ
CESSIONS OF TERRITORY BY GERMANY
To France
To Lithuania
To Belgium
Controlled by League of Nations
To Poland
Cessions to Denmark and Poland to be decided by plebiscites
To Czecho-slovakia
Boundary of Germany in 1914
New boundaries

Lands Ceded by the Treaty of 1919 with Germany

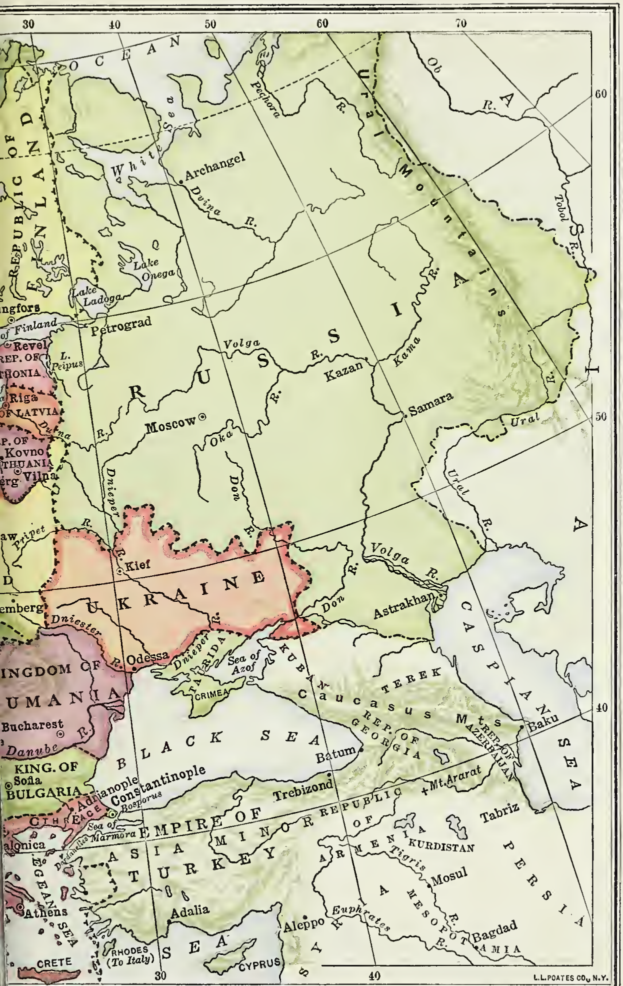
In addition Germany (7) lost all her colonies, and (8) agreed to pay a large sum of money, to be fixed later, in partial reparation for the destruction of property. She also agreed (9) to limit her army and navy to small forces. (10) To insure the carrying out of the treaty, the west bank of the Rhine, and important points on the east bank, were to be occupied for a time by Allied troops.

This treaty with Germany was signed June 28, 1919. It went into effect January 10, 1920. The United States, however, made a separate peace with Germany, July 2, 1921.



EUROPE IN 1920

Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Boundaries disputed or undetermined
Polish or German depending on plebiscite
30
20
10
0
10
60
50
40
Longitude West 0 Longitude East 10 from Greenwi
ARCTIC
ARCTIC CIRCLE
LOFOTEN IS.
Reykjavik
KINGDOM OF ICELAND
FAROE IS.
SHETLAND IS.
ORKNEY IS.
HEBRIDES IS.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
SCOTLAND
Glasgow
Edinburgh
Belfast
IRELAND
Liverpool
Manchester
WALES
ENGLAND
Birmingham
London
NORTH SEA
Bergen
Christiania
KINGDOM OF
Skagerrack
Kattegat
KING. OF DENMARK
Copenhage
Goteborg
Sto
KINGDOM OF
KING. OF NETHERLANDS
The Hague
Amsterdam
Antwerp
Rhine
K. OF BELGIUM
Brussels
Lille
GD. OF LUXEMBURG
SARRE BASIN
Cologne
Hamburg
Elbe
Berlin
Leipzig
Oder R.
Dresden
Free
Dai
BA
REP. OF GERMANY
English Channel
CHANNEL IS. (Br.)
Seine R.
Paris
Strasbourg
REPUBLIC OF FRANCE
Loire
Bordeaux
Lyons
Garonne R.
Rhone R.
Marseilles
REP. OF ANDORRA
Danube
Munich
Prague
CZECHO
RE
Vi
Bern
REP. OF SWITZERLAND
ALPS
REP. OF AUSTRIA
Trent
Trieste
Fiume
Drave
Milan
Turin
KINGDOM OF ITALY
KIN
ADRIATIC SEA
Rome
Naples
Du
Oporto
REPUBLIC OF PORTUGAL
Lisbon
Douro R.
Tagus R.
Guadiana R.
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
Madrid
Ebro R.
Pyrenees
Barcelona
Valencia
Seville
Malaga
Gibraltar (Br.)
Strait of Gibraltar
(Sp.)
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA (Fr.)
SARDINIA
SICILY
MALTA (Br.)
MEDITERRANEAN
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
AFRICA
TUNIS


30
40
50
60
70
60
50
40
30
40
OCEAN
White Sea
Pechora
R.
Ural Mountains
Ob
R.
Tobol
R.
REPUBLIC OF
FINLAND
Archangel
Dvina
R.
Lake Onega
Lake Ladoga
ngfors
of Finland
Petrograd
Revel
REP. OF
THONIA
L. Peipus
Riga
OF LATVIA
Duna
P. OF
Kovno
THUANIA
Vilna
erg
RUSSIA
Volga
R.
Kazan
Kama
R.
Samara
Ural
Moscow
R.
Oka
Don
R.
Dnieper
Ural
R.
ASIA
aw
Pripet
R.
Kief
R.
D
UKRAINE
Volga
R.
Don
R.
Astrakhan
emberg
Dniester
R.
Odessa
Dnieper
TAURIDA
Sea of Azof
CRIMEA
KUBAN
TEREK
Caucasus Mts
CASPIAN SEA
Baku
REP. OF GEORGIA
REP. OF AZERBAIJAN
KINGDOM OF
RUMANIA
Bucharest
R.
Danube
KING. OF
Sofia
BULGARIA
BLACK SEA
Batum
Adrianople
Constantinople
Bosporus
Trebizond
+Mt. Ararat
Tabriz
THRACE
Sea of Marmora
Dardanelles
EMPIRE OF
REPUBLIC OF ARMENIA
KURDISTAN
PERSIA
alonica
ASIA MINOR
TURKEY
Tigris
Mosul
AEGEAN SEA
Athens
Adalia
MESOPOTAMIA
R.
Aleppo
Euphrates
R.
Bagdad
SYRIA
CRETE
RHODES
(To Italy)
SEA
CYPRUS
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The treaty with Austria was signed September 10, 1919. It reduced Austria to an insignificant state of seven million people with the great city of Vienna as its center, but without any seaport. Seldom in history has a great nation been reduced to so low a state in so short a time. The Austrians, who are of the German race, wished to be incorporated with Germany, and Germany was willing; but France feared that such a union would strengthen Germany too much, and the peace treaties forbade it. Austria remained, therefore, an independent republic.

The treaty with Bulgaria was signed late in 1919; those with Hungary and with Turkey not until 1920. In each case the defeated country agreed to cessions of territory and limitation of military forces.

II. The Nations after the War

590. The New Germany. — Not only the kaiser but all the monarchs of the various German states (sec. 504) abdicated or were deposed in November, 1918.[1] With the crumbling of the empire it was necessary for the German people to devise a new form of government. Accordingly on November 16 a provisional republic was set up with Frederick Ebert (ā'bert) as chancellor. The flight and abdication of the kaiser discredited the old Junker party, the party of the aristocracy who had favored the war, and the new republican ship of state might have had clear sailing but for the violent attempts of the Spartacans (sec. 173) or radical Socialists (secretly aided by the Russian Bolshevists) to get control of the helm. There was much fighting in the streets of Berlin, but by the middle of January, 1919, the Spartacans were subdued and the Ebert government was in full control.

A National Assembly, freely and fairly elected by the men and women of Germany, began its sessions early in February, 1919. The delegates were divided among six or more parties, but the great majority were moderates. The Junker and the radical extremes elected few delegates. Thus the election proved that the people wanted an orderly republican government, free from monarchy on the one hand and Bolshevism on the other. The constitution framed by the National Assembly was adopted on July 31, 1919, and Frederick Ebert was elected the first president of Germany. A harness maker by trade, he had served many years as a member of the Reichstag, and was one of the leaders of the moderate Socialist party.

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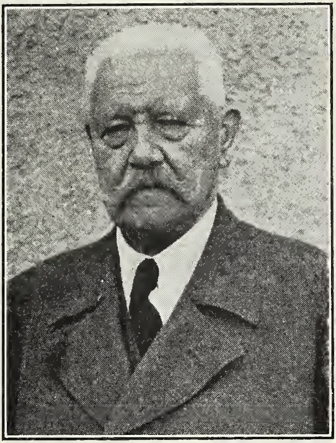
[1] William II, from his retreat in Holland, abdicated the thrones of Prussia and the German Empire on November 29, and a week later his eldest son, the crown prince, renounced all his rights. Thus fell the Hohenzollerns.

The new constitution provided for a president to be elected by the votes of the people, men and women above twenty years old, for a term of seven years; also for a legislature of two houses. The upper house, the National Council, represented the states, one representative for each million people, except that no state could have more than two fifths of the whole number. This last provision was intended to prevent Prussia, which comprises more than half the population of the country, from having control of the National Council. The lower house, called the Reichstag, was elected by the people for four years, but like the British Parliament could be dissolved before its full term expired. The Reichstag had far more power than the National Council, for the Cabinet, appointed by the president, was responsible to the Reichstag. Each of the states of Germany also had a republican form of government. Some of the smaller states were combined and the whole number was reduced from 25 to 17.

The new German government had to face the stubborn opposition of both extremes — the reactionary Junkers and the radical Spartacans. The many political parties in Germany, none having a majority, made it very difficult for the government to carry on. But President Ebert proved to be a strong and patriotic leader; he managed with admirable skill until his death in February, 1925.

At the ensuing election in April, the grim old warrior Field Marshal von Hindenburg, the candidate of the Monarchist party, was elected president. He vowed fidelity to the Republic when he took the oath of office, and he kept his vow. He was a man of great stability of character and of profound religious convictions. His election as president, and Germany's admission to the League of Nations a few years later, did much to secure the future peace of Europe.



Wide World Photos

President von Hindenburg

591. Poland. — One of the most notable results of the World War was the liberation of Poland and its reunion from parts of Prussia, Austria, and Russia. The Poles, a Slavic people of the Roman Catholic faith, have been known to history for a thousand years. During the Middle Ages Poland grew to be one of the important European states, but having no natural boundaries on the west or on the east it was frequently overrun by invading armies. In the eighteenth century it was wiped off the map by its three greedy neighbors (sec. 366). But the Poles maintained their language, their customs, and their religion, never ceasing to look forward to the time when they might again be free.

During the World War, great sections of Poland were made desolate by the contending armies, some parts being overrun as many as seven times. The people perished in hundreds of thousands. But with all this the surviving Poles, as the war approached its end, looked through the dark war clouds for the coming dawn.

On the day of the armistice with Germany, General Joseph Pilsudski (pē̇l-sōōd'skē̇) was proclaimed by the Poles as their military governor. He became the dictator pending the establishing of a national government. An election for a Diet (National Assembly) was held, and meantime a provisional government was set up, with Ignace Paderewski (pȧ-dĕ-rĕf′skē) as premier. Paderewski, who had lived for many years in the United States and was known the world over as the greatest living pianist, laid aside his music and took up the rôle of statesman. The electors gave a majority to the parties of Paderewski and Pilsudksi, and both were continued in office.

For some years Poland had war with several of her neighbors, especially with Russia, on account of boundary disputes. But in 1921 a peace treaty with that country was signed, and the same year Poland adopted a new and liberal constitution modeled on that of France. Paderewski in September, 1919, said, "From a Polish point of view, our one hope of future security as a state lies with the League of Nations, . . . Poland has set up a democracy under the inspiration of the American people." In her war with Russia, Poland was greatly aided by France.

Paderewski, after rendering valiant service to his country, returned to his music. For many years Pilsudski remained almost the dictator of Poland, serving as president and premier.

592. Bolshevist Russia. — Of all the tales of suffering engendered by the World War the most baleful are those which came from Russia and the lands on the Russian borders. Other countries were devastated indeed beyond description; but the war over, they were ready to bind up their wounds and look forward to a new life. Not so in Russia. In that unhappy land the miseries of the people were multiplied after the armistice. The cause lies in the fact that extreme radical leaders were in control, with the avowed purpose to overturn society and its existing institutions, destroy all the old governments of the world by force and violence, and set up a new and untried system.

The new system was known as Bolshevism. It had its origin in the activities of paid German agents during the World War. These agents were sent to demoralize the Russian peasants and soldiers by convincing them that the war was for the benefit of the rich only, that peace would bring bread and prosperity. The workmen and peasants were told also that all factories and farms really belonged to them and that the capitalists and great landholders should be driven out. The most radical faction of the Russian Socialists, called Bolshevists, or "Reds," took up the cry and soon they outdistanced all the German agents.

On taking control of Russia (sec. 572), the Bolshevists seized the property but repudiated the debts and all other obligations of the country. Under the astute leadership of Nikolai Lenin (lyĕn′ĭn) and Leon Trotzky,[1] they tried many socialistic and other experiments. Factories were seized and for a time were managed by the Bolshevist government through committees of the workmen. All laborers, skilled and unskilled, were to be paid by the state. But production fell off so greatly that the Bolshevists practically admitted the failure of this system. At length, in 1920, they conscripted labor armies, forcing workmen to labor long hours under severe military discipline, with no right to choose their occupation or place of residence.

593. The New Russian Autocracy. — The form of government nominally introduced by the Bolshevists is that by soviets (sō-vyĕts′), or committees — that is, committees of workmen. For electing members of each local soviet, only workmen and peasants were allowed to vote, including no one who hired any employee. A soviet for each larger district was made up of members elected by the local soviets of the district, and so on up to a central soviet or congress of soviets for the whole country. In actual practice the Bolshevist or communist party, though only a small minority in numbers, controlled all elections by force and intimidation; and Lenin and Trotzky ruled the party and the country more autocratically than any tsar.

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[1] When the tsar was deposed early in 1917, Lenin was an exile in Switzerland, whence he returned to Russia by the aid of the German government. He had a large following as a speaker and writer on socialism. Trotzky returned to Russia from New York, where he had been writing for a radical Russian newspaper.

There was no freedom of speech or of the press; no newspapers were allowed except those published by the Bolshevist government. The nobles and the middle class were reduced to menial labor or starvation. Workmen no longer had the right to strike. The people were disarmed, under penalty of death for having possession of weapons. An elaborate spy system was maintained to detect and crush all opposition.

The peasants seized the land they wanted, and raised food enough for themselves; but often resisted the Bolshevists when ordered to sell food for the worthless paper money printed in enormous quantities by the government.

Various attempts at counter-revolutions by other Russian parties were defeated, one after another, by the "Red" armies. In Russia and on its borders the Red armies seized grain and other supplies, and became a greater scourge than tsarism ever was. Thousands of people were put to death for no crime except their unwillingness to accept the Bolshevist doctrines. The failure of crops in 1921 and the weakness of the Soviet system brought the greatest famine ever known in Russia.

In January, 1924, Lenin died. He was a man of great capacity and he left a profound impression on his country. In his honor the city of Petrograd was renamed Leningrad. He was succeeded by Joseph Stalin (stä'lĕn), who became practically dictator of the whole Russian system.

594. Russian Border Lands. — Finland (sec. 541), like Poland, after the World War became an independent republic, acknowledged by the powers. The Baltic provinces (sec. 541), by the hard fighting of Esthonians, Letts, and Lithuanians against Bolshevists and Germans, likewise made themselves independent republics. These four new nations — Finland, Esthonia, Latvia, and Lithuania — all split off from the former Russian Empire, have similar forms of republican government. In each of them the people are hardy and industrious; agriculture is the chief industry; the educational system is excellent. In 1920 the illiteracy in Finland was $\frac{7}{10}$ of 1%. In each country except Lithuania the Lutheran religion prevails, though all religions are free.

The southwestern part of Russia bordering the Black Sea, known as U′kraine, set up its own independent government soon after the fall of the tsar. The Little Russians or Ukrain′ians are a sturdy people, differing slightly in speech and race from the other Russians. For ages, like the Poles and other subject peoples, they were oppressed by the government of the tsar, but they maintained their traditions and culture as best they could. There are rich iron and coal mines in the Ukraine, but the greatest wealth of the country lies in its fertile farms; the great majority of the people are farmers. The new republican government did not succeed in maintaining its independence. After several years of struggle with Soviet Russia, it yielded and became federated with that country by treaty in 1923.

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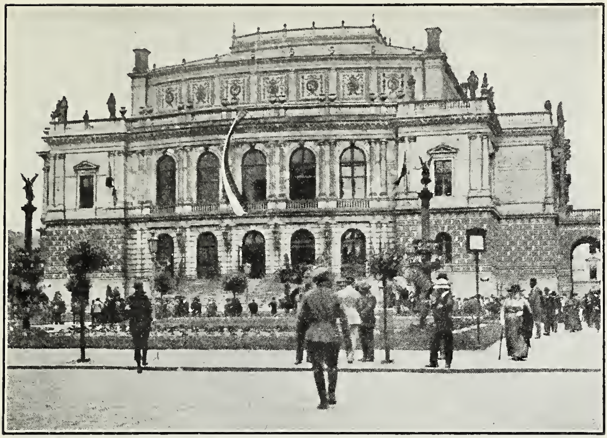
STREET IN KIEF (kē′yef), THE CAPITAL OF UKRAINE, ABOUT 1910

The shop signs are in the Russian language. Kief is one of the oldest cities in Europe, but the street car tracks and poles carrying electric wires show that it is far from being unprogressive. In the wars of 1918 to 1920 it was taken and retaken several times by contending armies.

Farther east, in Europe and in Asia, other border lands in 1918–1920 claimed existence as independent republics, some hostile to the Bolshevists and others friendly. North of the Caucasus Mountains there were Cossack states, and south of them were the republics of Georgia and Azerbaijan (ä-zer-bī-jän′). Georgia boasts a history of two thousand years and has been Christian since the fourth century. It was annexed to the Russian Empire in 1802. It is about the size of the state of New York and numbers some 3,000,000 people. Azerbaijan, east of Georgia, is a Mohammedan state. The rich Baku (bȧ-kōō′) petroleum field in Azerbaijan makes this land especially valuable. In 1920 and shortly after, the Bolshevists gained control of all these and other Russian lands to the Pacific Ocean.

595. **Hungary and Roumania.** — It was the aim of the Bolshevists to spread their system of industry and government over the whole world by inciting and aiding revolutions by workmen in other lands. But with all their efforts, they have seen their system adopted in only one country outside of the former Russian Empire, and that for only a few months. When informed of the territorial cessions required by the Allies, Hungary in defiance called the Hungarian Bolshevist party into power (March, 1919) — with results almost as disastrous as in Russia. Estates and fortunes were seized, divided, and spent, factories were mismanaged, and production declined, while a Red army was enlisted to recover the old boundaries of Hungary. At this point Roumania intervened. In a short war the Roumanian army completely defeated and overthrew the new Hungarian government. In due time the Roumanians withdrew. Former Emperor Charles made a rash attempt to regain the throne of Hungary; and the Hungarian Parliament then passed an act (1921) excluding the Hapsburgs forever from the throne. A republican government was established. The treaty with the Allies reduced Hungary to less than a third of its former size.

By annexations from Hungary, Austria, and Russia, the kingdom of Roumania was doubled in size.



Meeting Place of the Czechoslovakian Parliament, Prague

The building was originally a conservatory of music and art gallery. Prague, the capital of Czechoslovakia, has long been an educational center. Its university was founded in the fourteenth century, and is one of the oldest in Europe.

596. Czechoslovakia. — Besides Roumania and Poland, two other nations received large areas from the former Austria-Hungary — namely, the Slavic nations of Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia (yōō-gō-slä′vi-a).

At the outbreak of the World War, the Czechs or Bohemians (sec. 258), who for centuries had been ruled by Austria, were a prosperous and well-educated people. The Slovaks′ to the east of them, mostly peasants, were closely related in race and language. Both Czechs and Slovaks were opposed to German rule, and of the 600,000 of them forced into the Austro-Hungarian armies more than half deserted to the Russians. When Russia collapsed many of these soldiers reached the Western Front by crossing Siberia and the Western Hemisphere. Meanwhile, before the end of the war, the people at home and abroad declared their independence, created a new nation, and named it Czechoslovakia. As early as June 30, 1918, the president of France carried a Czechoslovakian flag to the battle front, amid great rejoicing, and handed it to the soldiers of that nation who were fighting beside the French.

The father and Grand Old Man of Czechoslovakia is Thomas G. Masaryk (mä′sä-rĕ̂k), who was an exile throughout the war, under sentence of death. A man of great talent, Masaryk with rare foresight believed among the first that Austria-Hungary would be dissolved, and gave all his energies to the future liberty of his people. In 1915 he was in Switzerland, in Paris, in London, working in the interest of his people; later we find him in Washington in conference with President Wilson.

The new state adopted a republican form of government and chose Masaryk its first president, in his absence. On his return home he was met by a great throng of shouting people; he took the oath of office with the simple words, "I promise." In 1920, and again in 1927, Masaryk was reëlected president.

Czechoslovakia is one of the most promising of the newborn nations. It is one fourth the size of France and has an intelligent and industrious population of about fifteen millions. The prevailing religion is Roman Catholic, but a new national church not connected with Rome has been founded. The majority of the people are farmers, but there are many industries, and of the coal and iron mines of the former Austria-Hungary more than half are now within the bounds of Czechoslovakia.

597. Yugoslavia. — Another group of Slavic peoples, known as the Yugoslavs or Jugo-Slavs (South Slavs), includes the Slovenes, Croats, and Serbs in the southern parts of the late Austria-Hungary (sec. 258), together with the Serbs of Serbia and Montenegro. A movement for their union under one government was begun as early as August, 1918. Finally a convention of representatives of all the Yugoslavs, held at Belgrade on January 5, 1919, formed the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes,[1] with the royal house of Serbia on the throne.

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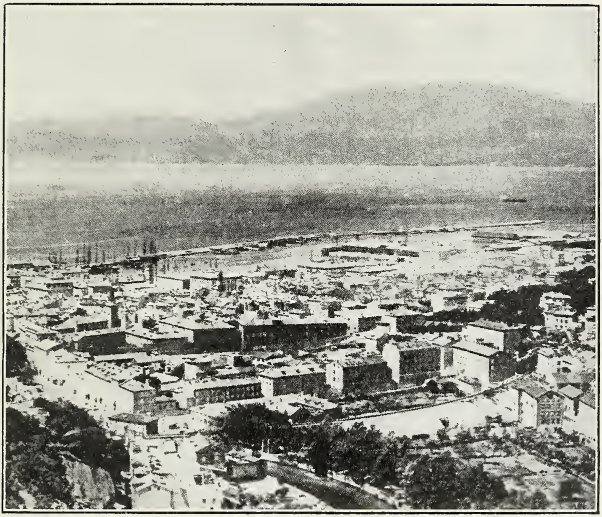
[1] By royal decree in 1929 the name was changed to Kingdom of Yugoslavia.

Trouble soon began. Complaints of Serbian oppression came from different parts of the kingdom. In Montenegro there was strife between supporters of the new order and supporters of the deposed king. When Italy laid claim to the city of Fiume (sec. 588), on the ground that a majority of its people are Italian, a bitter protest arose from the Yugoslavs. Fiume was practically their only outlet to the world by sea, as the rest of their coast line is so mountainous as to be useless. While the claim was under consideration, a band of Italians led by the poet and aviator d'Annunzio (dän-nōōn'dze-o) seized the city for Italy, in defiance of both governments. After long delay, by treaty between



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City and Harbor of Fiume

Situated on an inlet of the Adriatic Sea, the city has several harbors and extensive docks, with an important railway extending eastward. Before the World War the exports of grain, flour, sugar, lumber, and horses from Fiume amounted in value to about $30,000,000 a year.

these two nations signed on January 27, 1924, the city was transferred to Italy. Yugoslavia later, by a treaty with Greece, secured an outlet to the sea at Salonica.

Yugoslavia embraces a great extent of territory, about 96,000 square miles. It is much larger than Czechoslovakia, but is about equal in population and the people are less homogeneous. Except their Slavic origin and kindred language they have little in common. Their new constitution was proclaimed in June, 1921. It provides for a limited monarchy. In 1920 Yugoslavia allied itself with Czechoslovakia and Roumania to form the "Little Entente," the purpose of which is to maintain the *status quo* in Central Europe.

598. The Turkish Empire. — We have noted that three great European empires — Russia, Germany, and Austria-Hungary — were overthrown by the war. The Turkish Empire also was broken to pieces. During the war the Turks lost heavily. Their one success was in the defense of the Dardanelles; but they lost Palestine, Arabia, Mesopotamia, and Syria. By the Treaty of Sèvres (sâ'vr'), 1920, Turkey in Europe was confined to the small peninsula including Constantinople; a portion of Asia Minor including the fine city of Smyrna was given to Greece; and Turkey was further obliged to leave the navigation of the straits — the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, and the Bosporus — open to all nations, and to recognize the independence of Armenia, Palestine, Mesopotamia, Syria, and Hedjaz (sec. 600).

Meantime a strong leader arose in Turkey in the person of Mus'tafa Kemal'. He made Turkey a republic, rejected the Treaty of Sèvres, and demanded a new deal. The powers met at Lausanne (lō-zân') and the treaty there made gave eastern Thrace and Adrianople, Armenia, and other parts of Asia Minor back to Turkey. In 1920 a Greek army was sent into Asia Minor; but after two years of desultory fighting it was suddenly overwhelmed by the Turkish army and driven out of the country. Smyrna was recaptured by the Turks (August, 1922).

599. Italy and Greece. — Italian claims to territory were disputed not only by Yugoslavia but also by Albania and by Greece; but a peaceful outcome was at length secured. Included in the cessions to Italy were the regions around Trent and Trieste; several islands on the northeast coast of the Adriatic; and the island of Rhodes, subject to a plebiscite at the end of fifteen years.

A new and very active party arose in Italy in 1920; it is known as the Fascisti (fä-shē′stē). It stands for extreme nationalism and is opposed to socialism and communism. So rapid was the growth of the Fascisti party that in October, 1922, it forced the Cabinet to resign and gained control of the government, its leader, Benito Mussolini (mo͞os-so-lē′nē), being appointed premier by the king. Mussolini soon proved himself a man of extraordinary vigor and capacity. He became practical dictator of the nation.

Though late in entering the war, Greece ranked high in the rewards of victory, due chiefly to the diplomatic skill of her premier, Venizelos (vĕn-e-zā′lōs), one of the greatest statesmen of the time. He had led Greece to join the Allies in the World War, after the abdication of King Constantine. By agreement of the Allies at Sèvres, Greece won Thrace and part of Asia Minor, including Smyrna. Greece was becoming a power in southern Europe, to be compared with ancient Greece in her best days (see maps following page 72, on pages 620, 624, and following 692).

But the ungrateful Greek people, in an election in November, 1920, discredited their great leader, Venizelos, and recalled their exiled King Constantine to the throne. The disastrous result of the war in Asia Minor (sec. 598) was laid at the door of the king; and Constantine was again forced to abdicate. George II, second son of Constantine, succeeded his father on the Greek throne. But discontent continued and King George was forced to leave the country. In March, 1925, the Greeks voted to abolish the monarchy and establish a republic. But after ten years of political turmoil they decided again to restore the monarchy; they recalled George II to the throne, in November, 1935. He had spent his years of exile in England.

600. **Armenia and the Liberated Lands.** — One of the most interesting of the countries in the former Turkish and Russian empires is Armenia. The Armenians, an Indo-European people (sec. 12), are chiefly farmers and shepherds. They boast the oldest national Christian church, dating from the third century. Their tenacious adherence to their religion has been the chief cause of many fearful massacres by the Turks.

After the collapse of Russia, the Armenians of the former Russian Empire, with many refugees from Turkey, set up a republic and looked to a future of independence for all Armenia; but their hopes were dashed to the ground when the Allies left them unsupported against Bolshevist and Turkish rule.

Mesopotamia, as a result of the war, passed from Turkish to British control; and with British consent was made into the kingdom of Iraq (ē-räk′), with Feisal, son of Hussein of Hedjaz (Side Talk, page 685), as the king.

Syria extends from Mesopotamia to the Mediterranean Sea. Liberated by the war, Syria passed under French control, but looks forward to a future of self-government.

Palestine, the ancient land of the Jews and of the birth of Christianity, was wrested from the Turks by a British army. For twelve centuries it had been under Turkish control, except a brief period at the time of the crusades (sec. 225). What the future government of Palestine may be is not fully determined, but it is certain that Turkish rule is ended. There is a widespread movement called Zionism for aiding Jews who wish to move to Palestine from any part of the world. Its purpose is to coöperate with Zionists all over the world in reëstablishing Palestine as a home for the Jews. The British government, in control of the country, gives encouragement to the movement.

South of Palestine and along the Red Sea lies Hedjaz, to which the war brought independence from Turkish control (Side Talk, pages 684–685). In 1924, however, King Hussein was defeated in war by the sultan of Nejd, another Arabian state, who soon extended his sway over all of Hedjaz and most of Arabia.

601. The British Empire; Disposition of the German Colonies. — Great Britain, like other Allied countries, incurred a vast debt through the war and sacrificed hundreds of thousands of her young men; but like others, too, she made certain gains. On the sea, the greatest rival navy was destroyed utterly; on the land the bounds of the British Empire were enlarged.

As already noticed, the British secured control over Palestine and Mesopotamia. Also, as a result of the war, the Turkish claims to Cyprus and Egypt were yielded to Great Britain.

In Africa nearly all the land that had been the German colonies was divided between the British Empire and France (map facing page 581); but the boundaries of Italian possessions were somewhat enlarged. In the Pacific Ocean, the former German islands south of the Equator fell to Australia and New Zealand, while those north of the Equator were assigned to Japan. This disposition of the German colonies is subject to some degree of control by the League of Nations. The Kiaochow colony (sec. 512) was ceded to Japan, with a promise by Japan that it would be restored to China — a promise carried out shortly after the Washington Conference (sec. 610).

A Coalition government in England, formed in war time, held on for four years after the war closed, chiefly through the leadership of Premier Lloyd George. The Conservatives, led by Mr. Andrew Bonar Law, then forced an election for a new Parliament, which was held in November, 1922, and resulted in a Conservative victory. Ill health, however, forced Mr. Law to resign his premiership in May, 1923, and his successor, Mr. Stanley Baldwin, called for a new election in December. The Labor party then made great gains and its leader, Mr. J. Ramsay MacDonald, was called to the premiership in January, 1924. For the first time in the history of the nation Great Britain was under the control of a Labor government. But after MacDonald had served nine months a new election was held. The Labor and Liberal parties were defeated. The Conservatives won by a great majority and Mr. Baldwin again became premier.

III. The League of Nations

602. Organization and Meaning of the League. — The idea of a league of nations was not new in 1919. It had been discussed over and over for centuries. A generation had passed since Tennyson's vision of the time when

> "The war-drum throbbed no longer, and the battle-flags were furled,
> In the Parliament of Man, the Federation of the World."

A forerunner of the present League of Nations may be seen in the Hague Conferences (sec. 557). The formation of a league with power to enforce arbitration and to prevent future wars was now ably urged by many statesmen.

Certainly the time was ripe for such a movement to rid the nations of the curse of militarism, and the nations took advantage of it. They formed "the League of Nations," the chief purpose of which is to settle international disputes without war. It was the most momentous forward step of its kind ever taken under consideration by mankind. Its future will depend on the status of our civilization.

It is true that man has made much progress since the primitive days when there were no laws to prevent one from killing one's neighbor. For ages all the nations have had laws to curb the reckless individual, but none to curb a nation as a whole. A strong nation might strike down a weak one, for any cause or for no cause, without violating any law. It was not an illegal act when in 1914 Austria drew the sword on Serbia, though Serbia was willing to arbitrate. But now the League of Nations makes it a crime to do such a thing.

Among the notable clauses of the League Covenant, or constitution, are provisions for the improvement of labor conditions, for compulsory arbitration, for the future reduction of armaments, and for the publication of treaties. Secret treaties have been one of the most fruitful sources of war in the past. Under the League Covenant no treaty by any member can go into effect until it is published to the world by the League.

Europe was cold to the whole idea of the League, but President Wilson insisted, not only that the Covenant be adopted, but that it be embodied in the peace treaty. In many things Wilson had to yield to the views of others, but in this one thing he stood like adamant — and the League of Nations was born. The Covenant, however, has been amended from time to time.

603. Constitution of the League. — The Covenant provides for a Council, an Assembly, and a Secretariat.

The permanent members of the Council include representatives of the great Powers — France, Great Britain, Italy, and Russia. Japan and Germany also were Council members, but in 1933 gave notice of withdrawal from the League.[1] The ten other members are representatives of nations chosen by the Assembly for terms of three years. The Council meets every four months or oftener.

The Assembly is composed of delegates from all the nations that belong to the League; the number of member nations in 1936 was fifty-six. Each may send not more than three delegates, and the three (or two, or one) have but one vote. The Assembly meets once a year, in September, at Geneva, Switzerland, and continues its sessions about a month.

The powers of the Assembly and the Council are about the same; but the Council often takes the lead because it is a smaller body and can be summoned quickly in an emergency.

The Secretariat is composed of about 600 people, who remain in Geneva throughout the year, carrying out the work of the League and preparing an agenda for future meetings. They come from all parts of the world; many of them are experts in various fields. They are divided into many groups.

Closely associated with the League of Nations is the International Labor Organization. It has its own building in Geneva and several hundred members in its Secretariat. It gathers information regarding labor conditions from all countries. Its advice has proved helpful in many nations.

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[1] Other nations not members of the League early in 1936 were the United States, Brazil, Egypt, Costa Rica, and Saudi Arabia.

604. What the League has Done. — The League of Nations is the first organization of its kind, the first to furnish the machinery by which the nations can meet at regular intervals for the purpose of adjusting their differences.

The League has prevented war from breaking out in Europe on several occasions, the most notable being those threatening Italy and Greece in 1923, and Bulgaria and Greece in 1925. In each case shots were fired, war was imminent, and was prevented only by the prompt intervention of the League.

In addition to trying to keep the peace of the world, the League has a vast amount of other work to do — in social, humanitarian, and economic problems.

The League has saved Austria and several other minor nations from financial ruin. It transported hundreds of thousands of war prisoners from Siberia and other parts of the world to their former homes. It has grappled with the opium problem, the traffic in women and children, and the slave traffic in the Orient, with much success. Perhaps the greatest of its achievements was the creation of the World Court.

605. The World Court. — When the Court of International Justice, commonly called the World Court, was created by the League in 1920, there was no blare of trumpets or display of any kind, but it was one of the great events in the world's history. The court is composed of fifteen eminent judges, each elected by the League for nine years. No two can be of the same country. From the beginning one of the judges has been an American.[1]

The functions of the World Court are to interpret treaties and to decide any question involving international law that may be brought before it. It has already rendered many decisions of world-wide importance. It is open to all nations that wish to use it, whether they are members of the court or not.

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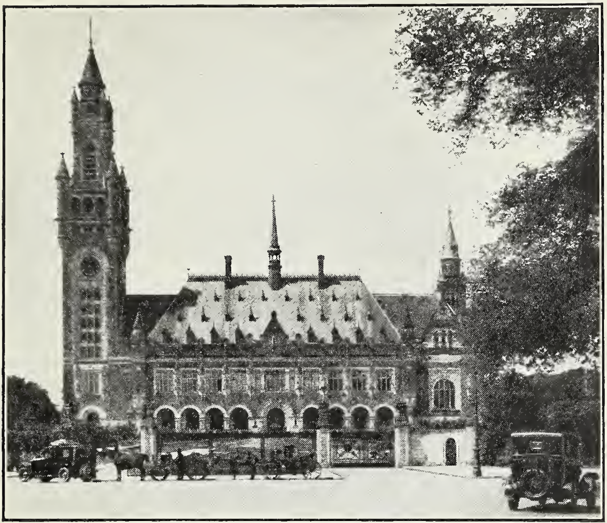
[1] John Bassett Moore, the eminent authority on law, was first selected. He was followed by Charles Evans Hughes, and when Hughes was chosen to be Chief Justice of our Supreme Court, he was succeeded at the Hague by Frank B. Kellogg.



Ewing Galloway

PEACE PALACE, AT THE HAGUE, HOLLAND

This building, the gift of Andrew Carnegie, is the meeting place of the World Court.

The entrance of the United States into the World Court has been urged by four Presidents — Harding, Coolidge, Hoover, and Roosevelt — but the Senate defeated it each time.

606. The United States and the League. — The League of Nations was organized in January, 1920, by thirty-six nations. Others joined as the years passed, Mexico as late as 1931, Turkey in 1932, and Russia in 1934. But the United States, whose war-time President had done more than any one else in creating the League, did not join it. In a glow of enthusiasm President Wilson brought home the League Covenant and laid it before the Senate. But unfortunately it got into politics and was made a partisan football. The Senate, after months of wrangling, rejected the League.

Our government, however, even without membership, coöperates with the League in many ways. There are more than forty committees on which Americans serve, many of them as appointees of our President. During the conflict between China and Japan in 1932 (sec. 616) our President and our Secretary of State took an active part in League affairs and even authorized an American to sit in some of the Council meetings. These relations show a friendly spirit; but as long as we refuse membership in the League we deny ourselves a voice in the Council and Assembly in which are decided great world questions.[1]

Questions and Topics. — I. Who were the " Big Four " in the Paris Peace Conference? Why was Premier Clemenceau one of them, and not the president of France (sec. 499)? State five of the most important provisions of the treaty with Germany. What was the general purport of the treaties made later with the other defeated nations?

II. What kind of government was set up in Germany after the war? In what other countries that you know, besides Germany, do both women and men have the right to vote? Make a list of the new countries established as a result of the war, with the kind of government in each. What existing countries made the largest gains in territory? In the series of maps in this book, follow the fortunes of the island of Rhodes and make a list of its changes in ownership. Do the same for Sicily; for the area that is now Belgium; for the area from which your ancestors came to this country.

III. Give an account of the origin and the composition of the League of Nations. Describe the World Court and its purpose. Find in the Covenant of the League some important provision not mentioned in this book. In current events find some unsettled problem that threatens war, and tell how it ought to be settled.

Events and Dates. — Peace Conference at Paris convened in January, 1919. Treaty with Germany signed in June and went into effect January 10, 1920. Treaties with Austria, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Turkey later. Establishment of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, and other new nations, 1918–1920.

For Further Reading. — *Current History*, *American Review of Reviews*, *Current Opinion*, *The Outlook*, *World's Work*, and other magazines of the period. *Statesman's Year Book* and other annual publications.

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[1] The "League of Nations Association," of New York City, sends out much literature concerning the League, of special value to those interested in its success.

CHAPTER XLIX

RECENT EVENTS

I. GREAT BRITAIN, HER "DOMINIONS," AND HER COLONIES

607. Changes in the British Empire. — There is hardly any longer a British Empire in the true sense of the word. It has been changed to the " British Commonwealth of Nations." The change came about in 1926, while the Conservative party was in power in Great Britain. A conference of prime ministers, held in London in October of that year, placed the dominions on almost an equal standing with the mother country.

Great Britain and the self-governing dominions were defined as " autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs," though united by common allegiance to the British crown and freely associated as members of the British " Commonwealth of Nations." These dominions are not only self-governing in local affairs, but have the right to make treaties with foreign nations and to have their own representatives at foreign courts. They include Canada, Newfoundland, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and the Irish Free State (sec. 608).[1]

In Great Britain, Mr. Baldwin remained at the helm almost five years. In the election of May 30, 1929, one of the notable elements was full woman suffrage for all over the age of 21 years, granted by a law of 1928 (by the law of 1918, only women over

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[1] An "Imperial Economic Conference" of Great Britain, India, and the self-governing dominions was held in Ottawa, Canada, during the summer of 1932, and after a month's debate on economic questions, closed on August 20. The expected harmony was not in evidence. Some readjustments of trade relations throughout the Empire were made, but on the whole the Conference was not regarded as a successful venture.

30 could vote). The short but exciting campaign was a three-cornered fight with Baldwin again leading the Conservatives, MacDonald the Laborites, and Lloyd George the Liberals. The Labor party gained the largest number of votes. MacDonald, an able leader, carried on as premier for more than two years, with occasional help from the Liberals.

In August, 1931, owing to the world-wide industrial depression, the economic and financial condition of the country had become so precarious that MacDonald dismissed his Cabinet and formed a temporary Coalition Cabinet, including Mr. Baldwin, for the purpose of tiding over the critical period. In the election of October, 1931, this National or Coalition Government was sustained by a great majority. The new Parliament made a notable departure from the free-trade policy of nearly a hundred years (sec. 468). In order to raise revenue and protect industries it placed a tariff on many imported articles, in many cases more than fifty per cent. In June, 1935, MacDonald was succeeded by Baldwin as premier.

After the death of George V, in January, 1936, his eldest son, long the Prince of Wales, ascended the throne as Edward VIII.

608. England and Ireland. — After the World War Great Britain had three major problems on her hands. These were the questions of Ireland, of Egypt, and of India.

At the end of 1921 the seven-hundred-year-old Irish problem was apparently near solution. A large Irish party known as the Sinn Fein (shĭn fān) had for some years been working for a free Ireland. It declared for an independent Irish Republic, and elected Eamon De Valera (vȧ-lā′rä) as its president. The British government, ignoring this action, put a large part of the island under martial law. Riot and bloodshed became an almost everyday occurrence, Southern Ireland demanding independence, while Ulster, the northern section of the island, opposed it. In December, 1921, however, a treaty was framed in London and signed by the British Cabinet and by representatives of the Sinn Fein. It provided that the greater part of

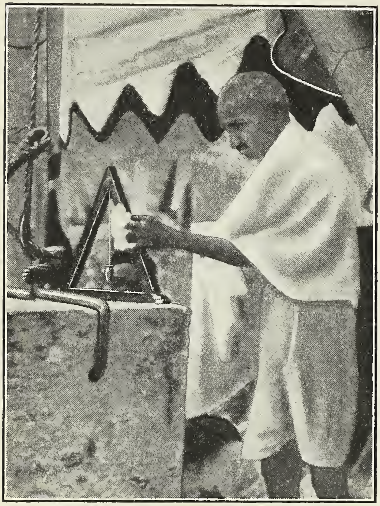
Ireland be made a self-governing member of the British Empire with the same standing as Canada or Australia. The new dominion is called the Irish Free State. It is forbidden to curb religious liberty or to endow any church. Ulster was given the right to join the new dominion, but chose not to do so.

The Sinn Fein parliament ratified the treaty, but De Valera refused to accept it and called his followers to resist by force. A civil war of more than a year followed. De Valera was defeated and in 1922 William T. Cosgrave became president of the Free State, and the same year a constitution was adopted and ratified by both countries. After serving for ten years Cosgrave was defeated for the presidency by De Valera. Then came the first serious rift in the arrangement of 1926 for the Commonwealth of Nations (sec. 607). De Valera demanded the abolition of the oath of allegiance to the British king; also that the land annuities paid by the Irish farmers to the English landlords be discontinued. This led the British House of Commons to lay an import duty of 20% on Irish goods shipped into Great Britain. De Valera then proposed a similar duty on British goods shipped to Ireland. Thus the relations between the two countries were dangerously unsettled.

609. India and Egypt. — Since the days of Lord Clive when England came into possession of most of the great peninsula of Hindustan (sec. 369) that country has proved a great asset to British trade, and it has given much trouble also.

The inhabitants, numbering more than 300,000,000, have long been restless under British rule. During the World War there was a sort of truce and India furnished more than a million soldiers for the Allied cause. But with the coming of peace trouble broke out again. A Hindu leader, Mahatma Gandhi (gȧnd′hē), led the anti-British forces. His method was one of non-resistance, of boycotting British goods, and refusing to coöperate with the British government. His party demanded absolute self-government for India, or at least the status of the other members of the Commonwealth of Nations.

Gandhi opposed the use of modern machinery and advocated going back to old-time methods of manufacturing by hand. To prove his sincerity he dressed in a hand-made cloak and loin cloth, and in this fashion he attended a conference in London in 1931. He had a remarkable following among his countrymen; great numbers of people regarded him almost as a supernatural being. But with all his prestige at home Gandhi's negotiations with the British government brought only meager results.



Wide World Photos

Mahatma Gandhi

At the ceremony of laying the cornerstone of a hospital at Calcutta.

During 1932 serious riots and bloodshed occurred in strife between the Hindus, who number about 240,000,000, and the Mohammedans, about 80,000,000, especially in Bombay and Calcutta. The British found it very difficult to keep order. A threat by Gandhi to starve himself helped to bring about a compromise between the high-caste Hindus and the low-caste "untouchables."

In Egypt there was bitter anti-British agitation, and after long negotiations the British protectorate was withdrawn in 1922, though Great Britain retained certain advisory powers and control over the Suez Canal. Egypt is not fully self-governing; but it is perhaps more nearly so than before in 2500 years.

II. INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES

610. The Washington Conference. — With the destruction of the German navy there were but five great navies left in the world — those of the United States, Great Britain, Japan, France, and Italy. And those of Japan and Great Britain had been united in an alliance for nearly twenty years. This alliance was considered a menace to the United States, and in order to break it up and to limit naval armaments in general President Harding invited the leading nations to meet in Washington in the autumn of 1921. The nations responded and sent most eminent statesmen as their representatives. This Conference agreed on several very important treaties.

(1) The Naval Limitations Treaty provided for a drastic cut in naval armaments. It scrapped 66 warships (1,978,000 tons) and reduced the British and American strength in battleships, for a period of ten years, to 500,000 tons each, the Japanese to 300,000, and the French and Italian to 175,000 tons each. The quotas were based roughly on the existing navy and the length of shore line of each country.

(2) The Four-Power Treaty, signed by Great Britain, the United States, Japan, and France, abrogated the Anglo-Japanese alliance and provided that any disputes that might arise concerning the islands of the Pacific Ocean should be settled by a conference of these four nations.

(3) The Five-Power Treaty, signed by these four powers and Italy, prohibits the use of poison gas in war and forbids attacking of merchant vessels by submarines. The Conference in other minor treaties regulated the tonnage and amount of smaller vessels, and provided for the "open door" and complete independence of China.

The work of this Conference was hailed as a great naval victory, putting a stop to any race in naval armaments. It did not, however, grapple with the question of land armaments. It might perhaps have done so but for the attitude of France, which feared the possibility of another invasion of her soil by Germany.

611. The London Conference of 1930. — Early in 1930 there was held in London another naval conference, the purpose of which, like that of Washington, was to limit naval armaments. It, too, was composed of the five greatest naval powers — Great Britain, the United States, Japan, France, and Italy. It discussed naval affairs and drew up a treaty, which limited battleship strength and provided for the scrapping of several old battleships.[1] It regulated gun elevations, airplane carriers, and armor plate, also the use of destroyers and submarines. France and Italy could not agree as to the relative size of their respective navies, and owing to this deadlock the treaty became a three-power treaty. It was ratified by the United States, Japan, and Great Britain; but later Japan denounced the treaty, so that it ceased to be binding.

612. Treaty of Locarno (1925). — A most important treaty was made by five European nations in the little town of Locarno, Switzerland, in October, 1925. In both France and Germany important changes in government had come about. In Germany President von Hindenburg had chosen Dr. Gustav Stresemann (strā′zē-män) as foreign minister. Aristide Briand (brē-äɴ′) was now the French foreign minister. The Locarno conference was suggested by Briand, and was attended by the foreign ministers of France, Germany, Great Britain, and Belgium, and by Premier Mussolini of Italy.

(1) The Treaty of Locarno provides for the demilitarizing of a zone, 50 kilometers in width, along the eastern bank of the Rhine River, as provided in the treaty of Versailles. (2) Germany and France, and Germany and Belgium, agree that in no case will they attack or invade each other, that disputes which cannot be settled by the nations themselves must be decided by the Council of the League of Nations. (3) If one of the

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[1] A "scrapped" vessel, however, might be kept for target practice or for experimental or training purposes, after being dismantled and made unfit for use in war.

parties to this agreement violates it, or refuses to submit a dispute to arbitration, or to accept the decision of the Council of the League, both Great Britain and Italy shall come to the assistance of the victim of such breach of faith.

Germany made treaties of arbitration also for settling all disputes with Poland and Czechoslovakia.

613. **Pact of Paris** (1928). — Another treaty of far-reaching importance was signed in Paris, August 27, 1928, by fifteen nations with an invitation to other nations to join later; by 1930 nearly all had joined. By this treaty the nations " condemn recourse to war for the solution of international controversies and renounce it as an instrument of national policy." This treaty, suggested by Briand, was framed by Mr. Kellogg, American Secretary of State, and it has taken the name of both — the Briand-Kellogg Treaty. It is also called the Pact of Paris.

614. **Reparations and War Debts**. — It has been the custom for centuries for the winning side, after a war, to exact an indemnity from the loser, under the fiction that the victor alone was in the right and should be paid for its losses. After the World War the term " reparations " was used to designate the huge sums required of Germany for the immense damage her armies had inflicted on Belgium and France. When Germany fell short of making the promised payments, France and Belgium sent an army into the Ruhr Valley, the chief industrial section of Germany (January, 1923). Essen with its great Krupp works and many other towns in the Rhineland were occupied.

In 1923 a committee of experts with Charles G. Dawes at its head decided that Germany was able to pay and should do so. But Germany still fell short (though she had paid about $3,500,000,000). Another committee, headed by Owen D. Young, was appointed to revise the Dawes Plan. It brought forth the Young Plan, which recommended that Germany pay about $27,000,000,000 in fifty-eight yearly installments.

But Germany had serious political difficulties at home, and at the worst of the world-wide economic depression of 1929–1933 she announced that she could no longer pay reparations.[1] This led to the calling of a conference at Lausanne, Switzerland, in 1932, to consider the matter further. At this conference it was agreed that all future reparations be reduced to a lump sum of $714,000,000. It was generally understood also that the Allies hoped (with no promise from the United States) that the huge sums they owed to the United States would eventually be canceled or greatly reduced.

615. Danzig and the Polish Corridor. — It has been said that the Polish Corridor is the sorest spot in Europe. The dispute is between Germany and Poland.

The Treaty of Versailles provided that Poland should have an outlet to the Baltic Sea by means of a broad corridor along the Vistula River. This corridor extends about 45 miles inland and is about 20 miles wide at the coast and 140 on the south. It is a province with a million inhabitants, formerly a part of East Prussia, and it cuts off East Prussia from the rest of Germany.

The city of Danzig near the mouth of the river was made a free city under the control of the League of Nations. A few years later the Poles founded the city of Gdynia, ten miles farther west on the coast. Gdynia has grown very rapidly and has captured much of the trade of Danzig.

Germany is greatly dissatisfied with the whole situation. The Polish government is oppressive to the German inhabitants of the disputed territory, as the German government was oppressive to the Poles in the past. The fear that the dispute might lead to war was allayed by a ten-year truce agreed to by both nations.

616. China and Japan. — During the autumn of 1931 and the early months of 1932 the world's attention was directed to a serious conflict between China and Japan. At the Washington

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[1] In France also there were political difficulties. After several changes in the premiership, the head of the Cabinet in 1932 was Herriot (ĕr-ĭ-ō′), who was conciliatory in his attitude toward Germany. In May, 1932, President Doumer (doo-mā′) was assassinated by a Russian, and Albert François Lebrun (lē-brŭɴ′) was chosen to succeed him.

Conference Japan had reluctantly signed the treaty providing for the open door in China. Japan, overcrowded with people, is anxious for an outlet for her surplus population, and for years has had her eye on Manchuria, the great northern sparsely-settled section of China. In 1931 she made an attack on that country on the pretext of protecting Japanese property from Chinese bandits, and seized Mukden and many other towns. China could make little resistance, but the Chinese people retaliated by means of a boycott on Japanese goods. This angered Japan and she sent an army to Shanghai. Japan and all the world were surprised at the stubborn resistance of China. In many battles, some thousands of lives were sacrificed.

Publishers' Photo Service

STREET IN THE NATIVE QUARTER OF SHANGHAI

Part of the city seized for a time by Japanese troops in 1932.

Meanwhile the United States and the League of Nations were doing all they could to bring about a settlement between the two warring nations. Our government declared that the belligerents were violating the Briand-Kellogg Treaty (sec. 613), and the League of Nations added that they were violating the League Covenant in not submitting their dispute to the World Court.

The sympathy of the world was with China. At length, on January 8, 1932, the American Secretary of State, Mr. Stimson, sent identical notes to the belligerents declaring that the American government would not recognize any territorial gains made by force of arms in violation of the treaty. A few weeks later the League Assembly made a similar declaration. This dictum was new and startling in international law. The Stimson doctrine is that the Pact of Paris makes war illegal and that no nation shall enjoy the fruits of a victory won by illegal means.

The Japanese at length withdrew from Shanghai under pressure of the League of Nations and the United States; but they retained their hold on Manchuria, in which they set up a new government, calling the country Manchukuo. The League of Nations appointed a committee, with Lord Lytton of England at its head, to make a searching investigation of the Chino-Japanese conflict. The report of this committee censured Japan, declared that she had violated existing treaties, and proposed that Manchuria be made a semi-autonomous government. Against the fierce opposition of Japan, the League Assembly voted unanimously, February 24, 1933, to accept the report of the committee. Japan, a few weeks later, gave notice of her withdrawal as a member of the League.

The United States sided with the League. Never before in history had so nearly all the world been arrayed against the acts of a single nation.

617. The Disarmament Conference. — For many years the subject of disarmament has been considered in all civilized countries. It is agreed that the tax burdens caused by armaments are excessive and needless, and that excessive armaments make for war rather than peace.

The Covenant of the League of Nations expressly provides for disarmament in so far as consistent with national safety. But the years passed and nothing was done. The nations of Europe, even during the economic depression, were spending more for armaments than before the war; not because they were more pugnacious than before, but because they are victims of a baleful system that dates back for centuries, and believed the armaments necessary for security against attack. For thirty centuries the nations have been building up and improving their weapons of war. Is it possible for them now, by mutual agreement, to disarm or greatly reduce their armaments?

The League of Nations appointed a Preparatory Commission which worked and planned for five years for a Disarmament Conference. This met in February, 1932, with fifty-seven nations represented, including the United States. For nearly six months the Conference considered the many proposals brought before it, such as those to outlaw the most destructive weapons of war — poison gas, disease germs, tanks, bombing planes, and the like. France proposed an international army under control of the League of Nations to keep the peace of the world; but few of the nations approved that proposal.

The Conference adjourned without producing much in the way of tangible results. But it was not a failure. The fact of its being held, the first of its kind in history, had a deep meaning. It showed what the people of the world were thinking about.

When the conference met again, in March, 1933, it was encouraged for two reasons: first, by a four-power peace pact for a period of ten years, signed June 7 by Italy, France, Germany, and Great Britain; second, by a letter to the nations of the world by President Roosevelt, proposing that the nations formulate an agreement of non-aggression, that they reduce their armaments one third, and that offensive weapons be eliminated altogether. But nothing was decided.

At a later meeting, May 29, 1934, Sir John Simon of England proposed gradual disarmament, with partial rearmament by Germany; but this was flatly rejected by France. A Russian delegate proposed that the Conference reorganize as a permanent body. If the governments of the world decide in favor of this, the Conference may yet prove to be a useful agent for peace.

III. Developments in and near Europe

618. Turkey and Mustafa Kemal. — Turkey has had a new birth under the masterly leadership of Mustafa Kemal, founder and first president of the new Turkish Republic. He moved the capital to Angora in Asia Minor. Among his notable reforms are the deposing of the sultan and abolishing of the caliphate, separation of church and state, abolishing slavery and polygamy, and doing away with the fez for men and the veil for women. Also he has adopted new law codes borrowed from Europe, and has substituted the Roman alphabet for the archaic Arabic in writing and printing the Turkish language. He has founded many schools, for adults as well as for children. He has adopted the Gregorian calendar and the metric system. In short, this man is doing for Turkey what Peter the Great did for Russia — Europeanizing it.

Benito Mussolini

619. Italy. — Scarcely greater are the changes in Turkey under her able president than are those in Italy under Mussolini. It is true that Mussolini is no democrat, nor does he foster freedom of speech or of the press; but he has done some great things for Italy. He is a man of remarkable ability. For some years he held seven of the thirteen posts in the Italian Cabinet. One of his greatest achievements was the wiping out of the murderous Mafia (mä′fē-ä) society in Sicily. For many years this band of criminals, under a secret oath not to testify in court, terrorized the people of the island and lived by brigandage and murder. But in two or three years after Mussolini ordered the society suppressed, it was done. Hundreds of men went to prison, many of them for life, and the Mafia ceased to exist. Another achievement of the Italian Dictator was the amicable settlement with the Vatican, as noted on a former page (sec. 488).

Mussolini's ambition extended beyond the bounds of Italy. He aspired to make Italy a world power comparable to Ancient Rome. He chose to extend Italian power in Africa. The only large section of Africa independent of European control was Ethiopia, known also as Abyssinia, and for the conquest of that country the Italian Dictator laid his plans.

620. Russia and Communism. — The basal aims of Bolshevism are threefold: (1) to destroy capitalism and overthrow all existing forms of government; (2) to suppress if not destroy religion; (3) to break up or greatly modify family life. Each of these aims must have a word of comment.

The destruction of capitalism means that all distinction between rich and poor is to be removed by the seizure of the rich man's fortune and making him, as well as the poor man, an employee of the state. The Kulaks[1] (kŏŏ-läks′) of Russia were treated with the utmost cruelty if they made any resistance in giving up possessions, perhaps the savings of a lifetime. They were put to death or sent into lifelong exile in Siberia.

Russian Bolshevism or communism is avowedly anti-religious. It forbids all public religious teaching to minors under 18 by Christians, Jews, or Mohammedans. It propagates its doctrine of godlessness through the press, moving pictures, and public schools.

As to family life, as we know it, the Bolshevists plan to break it up by having both parents work for the state, eat at a government refectory, and hand over their children to be raised in a

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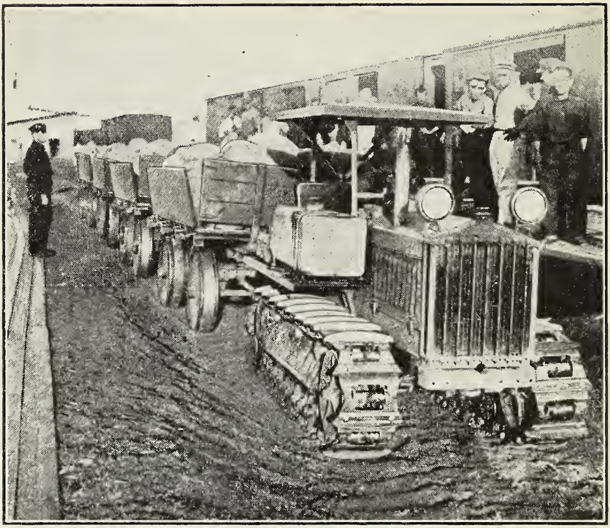
[1] The rich men of the peasant class who owned homes and farms, and had hired help.



Shipping Wheat from a Collective Farm in Russia

The tractor has hauled the wheat from the field to the platform where it will be loaded on railroad cars.

state institution. All these plans have been partly, but by no means fully, carried out.

All the world is interested in the Russian experiment. Most people look on it with decided disapproval. Its future no one can tell. Communism has been tried many times in the past on a smaller scale, but it has never succeeded. No nation has hitherto existed in which the right of the individual to accumulate property and to plan his own career has been denied him, except under conditions of slavery and feudalism. No people in history has been without religion and the pleasures of family life. These have constituted the chief sources of man's happiness in all countries and all ages. Can they be removed, or twisted and distorted, and society continue on an enduring basis? Perhaps the Russian experiment will furnish an answer.

In carrying on the industries of Russia, the communistic plan did not work well, and it was greatly modified. Then in 1928 Stalin inaugurated the Five Year Plan for the expansion and government control of all important industries by 1933. A notable feature of this is the collective farming, by which the farmers became employees of the state. The Five Year Plan, partly completed in four years, was followed by a second Five Year Plan; but in 1932 and 1933 Russia was menaced by the world-wide depression and by a shortage of food crops.

621. Events in Germany. — The rancor that developed among the Allies against the German people during the war has subsided. We know that the German race compares well with others. The many German immigrants in this country, for example, rank among our best and most intelligent citizens.

During the years following the war Germany suffered greatly through economic stress and reparations payments. In addition to the many older political parties in Germany, a new one came into existence under the leadership of Adolf Hitler. He was a fiery orator with compelling power over crowds, especially of young people. He modeled his party after the Fascists of Italy and called it National Socialist, or Nazi for short. It was not long before he had thousands and then millions of followers. His party stood for extreme nationalism, and for repudiating the Versailles Treaty and the war debts.

In 1932 the aged President von Hindenburg was induced to stand for reëlection. He made the race against Hitler and won by a majority of more than six million (April 10). The year following von Hindenburg's reëlection was a restless year for Germany. There were twelve parties, but none strong enough to get control of the Reichstag, and that body was often at odds with the president and his cabinet. Several times it was dissolved and new elections called. The Nazi party was the largest and strongest of the twelve. Von Hindenburg at last felt obliged to call Hitler, the leader of that party, to the chancellorship. He did so on January 30, 1933.

622. The Reign of Hitler in Germany. — On March 5 came another election, and the Hitler party won almost as many seats as all the other parties combined. Hitler was soon supreme in Germany. He called the Reichstag together to do his bidding, and his bidding was that it transfer its power to him and adjourn. It did so; the aged president, too, was crowded from the center of the stage, and Adolf Hitler was dictator of Germany.

This meant revolution in Germany; it meant the downfall of the republic and the establishment of a dictatorship, similar to that of Mussolini in Italy. Hitler was not long in announcing his policies to the world. He scrapped the constitution (sec. 590) and put an end to the republican form of government.

In foreign policy, he demanded that Germany be permitted to rearm unless the other powers agreed to disarm without delay. The matter was under discussion at Geneva. Hitler was displeased with the attitude of the powers, and on October 14, 1933, the German cabinet startled the world with a declaration of Germany's withdrawal from the Disarmament Conference and the League of Nations. At a special election, the people approved of this action by a vote of about 40,000,000 to 2,000,000.

In domestic affairs Hitler's changes are profound and far-reaching, — especially the four here following:

First, an oppression of the Jews, based on Hitler's extreme nationalism and desire to purge the German race of alien strains and make it purely Aryan. The Jews constituted only one per cent of the population, but some had been leaders in the business world and in the fields of science and the arts, and had held many high offices.

Second, a dissolving of all political parties except the Nazi. All opposition to the Nazi was suppressed by the Brown Shirts, or Storm Troops, who numbered millions of Hitler followers.[1]

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[1] Later the Storm Troops were suspected of conspiracy against Hitler. They were dissolved and nearly a hundred of their leaders were put to death.

Third, a complete unifying and consolidating of the government, obliterating all traces of federalism and centering the governing power in the dictator. Even state boundary lines were all but eliminated.

Fourth, a uniting of all phases of German life under the control of the government at Berlin. This included the suppression of personal liberty and the freedom of the press, the control of industry and business, of the churches and schools, of labor unions, farming, the arts and sciences. No democracy remained in the country. German life and activity were directed from above.

Hitler had not seized his power. It was given him by vote of the people, who seemed tired of their experiment in democracy. The Allies had treated the German Republic as harshly as if they had been dealing with the Hohenzollern monarchy. No party could get control, though the Germans had five national elections in one year. Then they turned to Hitler and acclaimed him with almost religious ecstasy.

623. Events in Austria. — Ever since the close of the war, and especially since the rise of Hitler, Germany had sought to embrace Austria within the German Reich, and a strong Nazi party had grown up in Austria. But many Austrians opposed union with Germany. The Austrian chancellor, Engelbert Dollfuss, a man of great courage and patriotic fervor, bitterly opposed it and he was sustained by the great powers, Italy, France, and England, all of which look with disfavor on such an increase of Hitler's power in Europe.

On July 25, 1934, a band of Nazis tried to seize the government, and one of them shot Chancellor Dollfuss, who soon died from the wound. This *putsch*,[1] as the Germans call it, created a sensation throughout the world. But the effort ended in failure. The whole Nazi band was soon captured by government troops. Several of the leaders were tried, convicted, and put to death; others were sent to prison for long terms.

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[1] For *putsch*, meaning an attempted revolution by violence, there is no equivalent English word.

There was a widespread belief that Hitler had planned the raid with a view of annexing Austria by force. Mussolini sent 50,000 troops to the Italian frontier to aid in preserving Austrian independence if needed. Hitler quickly denied all connection with the raid, and publicly declared for Austrian independence.

As successor of the murdered chancellor, Dr. Kurt Schuschnigg declared that he would carry out the policies of his predecessor.

624. Hindenburg and Hitler; the Situation Early in 1936. President von Hindenburg, while somewhat eclipsed by the spectacular activities of Chancellor Hitler, was considered a balance wheel to the government and was greatly beloved by the whole German people. He was spending the summer on his 8000-acre estate in East Prussia when late in July, 1934, word was flashed over the world that the aged president's health had broken and that he could live but a few days. The end came on August 2. With the highest military honors, he was laid to rest at Tannenberg, where he had won his great victory in 1914.

Meantime Hitler called his cabinet, and had a law passed giving to him, as *Fuehrer* (leader), the powers of both president and chancellor. At a special election the people ratified this law by a large majority.

Thus Adolf Hitler became dictator and absolute master of the German nation, nearly 70,000,000 people! His power was tremendous — greater than Bismarck or the Kaiser ever wielded. But conditions were not promising. Hitler had alienated nearly all the other nations of Europe. His treatment of the Jews had brought a boycott in many parts of the world; foreign trade had fallen off alarmingly, and many factories were closed for want of raw material.

On January 13, 1935, there was an important election in the Saar Valley. For fifteen years the people of the Saar were under the control of the League of Nations and at the end of that time they were to vote whether so to remain, or to join France, or to go back to Germany. By a large majority they decided to return to Germany.

Hitler was elated with the result of the Saar election. Some time later he gave notice to the world that Germany had decided to rearm, in spite of the Versailles Treaty. This was startling enough to the other nations; but far more so was Hitler's decision, in March, 1936, to send an army into the demilitarized zone of the Rhine Valley, in defiance of the treaties of Versailles and Locarno. He announced that a recent treaty between France and Russia was unfriendly to Germany and justified his action.

625. In Other Lands. — The world was startled on October 9, 1934, when Alexander, king of Yugoslavia, was assassinated at Marseille, France, while on his way to Paris for a conference. With him at the moment was Louis Barthou (bar-tōō′), French foreign minister, who was also slain by the assassin's bullets. King Alexander was succeeded on the Yugoslavian throne by his young son Peter, a boy of eleven years.

The year 1934 was a critical one for France, owing to friction between the Chambers and the Cabinet. In one respect the French constitution is very weak. It gives too much power to the legislative branch and too little to the executive. The Chambers, to whom the Cabinet is responsible, can force the Cabinet to resign, as it often does, by an adverse vote, without affecting its own tenure. Far better is the British system under which the Premier can force Parliament to dissolve and appeal to the country. To this serious defect in the French constitution are due the frequent and often dangerous changes in the executive branch of the government.

(For important recent events in Belgium and in Spain, see sections 550, 551 — on pages 631, 632.)

626. Mussolini and Ethiopia. — When it was rumored that the League of Nations would resist the conquest of Ethiopia (sec. 619), which, as well as Italy, was a member of the League, Mussolini is said to have declared that he would go ahead "with the approval of the League, without it, or against it." He had sent a great army, with a vast supply of munitions, to East Africa.

Ethiopia claims to be the oldest of the Christian nations. Its people are partly of the white race and partly of the black race, and its civilization is similar to that of Europe in the Middle Ages. The Emperor, Haile Selassie, appealed to the League for protection against Italy. The Council of the League met and decided that in compliance with the Covenant of the League both nations must refrain from hostilities for three months. Ethiopia agreed to comply. Italy refused and a few days later, early in October, 1935, her armies advanced into Ethiopia.

The Council then by a unanimous vote declared that Italy had violated the Covenant, and that "sanctions" should be enforced against her; that is, that all economic and financial relations should be cut off. But Mussolini disregarded the League action and continued a ruthless invasion of Ethiopia. By the summer of 1936 most of Ethiopia was conquered. The Italian army held the capital city. Haile Selassie fled to Palestine and later took refuge in Europe.

Questions and Topics. — I. What caused the change of the British Empire to the British Commonwealth of Nations? In what way does an empire differ from a nation? a state? a commonwealth? Why has there been such long friction between England and Ireland?

II. What is the significance of the Washington Conference? Was the decision at Lausanne about reparations a wise one? Why? Do you think the Polish Corridor should have been established? Give reasons. What is the best thing that can be said of the Disarmament Conference?

III. What great things has Kemal done for Turkey? Mussolini for Italy? Do you think the Germans are wise in abolishing the republican form of government? Name some of the changes Hitler has brought to Germany. Why do we like a government of the people better than an autocracy? Name a weakness of the French constitution. Why is the war between Italy and Ethiopia of great importance?

Events and Dates. — Washington Conference, 1921. Locarno Treaty, 1925. Establishment of the British Commonwealth of Nations, 1926. Briand-Kellogg Treaty, 1928. London Treaty, 1930. Disarmament Conference, 1932–1934. Lausanne Conference, 1932.

For Further Reading. — Same as in last chapter.

A REPRODUCTION OF THE PARTHENON

This reproduction of the Parthenon is in Centennial Park, Nashville, Tennessee. It is an accurate copy of the original Parthenon, pages 96–97.

CONCLUSION

MODERN TIMES

I. THE LIVING PAST

The Beginning of Things. — The Astronomer tells us that the universe is very old. He tells us that the stars in the sky, of which our sun is one, all of which are rushing through space at incredible speeds, are perhaps billions of years old. He tells us that the earth was probably originally a part of the sun and that it was torn from that glowing orb at some remote time by some prodigious power. It was then a glowing mass of white-hot gas, as the sun still is.

Swinging around the sun in its orbit for perhaps hundreds of millions of years, it lost its heat, as a hot iron becomes cool when taken from the fire. Thus the earth became solid and capable of supporting life. The astronomer gives no exact figures or dates for these beginnings. He does not know.

Next comes the Geologist. He begins the study of the earth where the astronomer leaves off. He tells us that the interior of the earth is still hot, some of it in a molten state, and that the cool crust of rocks and rock layers on which we live is only a few miles thick. He tells us of the upheavals and crumplings of the earth's crust that formed the mountains, of the mineral and rock formations, of the divisions of the surface into land and water areas, of the fossil remains of ancient plants and animals, and of many other things. But he does not tell us just when these things happened. He may guess within a million years. But he is not sure. He does not know.

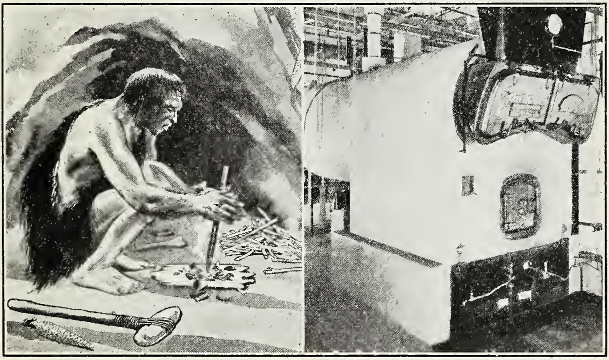
The Biologist is next. He tells about life on the earth in all its many forms — from worms and jellyfish to the highest apes and man, from the seaweed and lichens to the stately oak and pine trees. But he says little about the origin of life or the time of its beginning, because he does not know.

Now after a brief session with the Geographer, who describes the earth with reference to its fitness for human habitation, we come to the last in this list — the Historian.

The Historian traces the progress of human civilization. He deals with the races and nations of the world, their ways of life, culture, government, and relations with one another. But the historian — like the astronomer, the geologist, the biologist — must leave the beginnings of his great story in doubt. As shown in the first chapter of this book, he may learn much of man's childhood, his early civilization, habits, and progress, but the beginnings are lost in the haze and mist of prehistoric twilight.

The Dead Past. — Not all the past can be called the Living Past. Some nations have risen and flourished for centuries without having made any contribution of permanent value. Most of the cave men and men of the jungle spent ages in their caves and their jungles, made no progress, and gave the world nothing worth preserving. Of the record of their existence the historian has little to say. They belong to the dead past.

The Past That Lives. — As noted in the early chapters of this book, many of the best things we enjoy were bequeathed to us by the ancient peoples. From the Egyptians, Babylonians, Hebrews, Greeks, Romans, we inherit the main principles of architecture, religion, art, law, government, and other things, without which our civilization would have stagnated long ago.



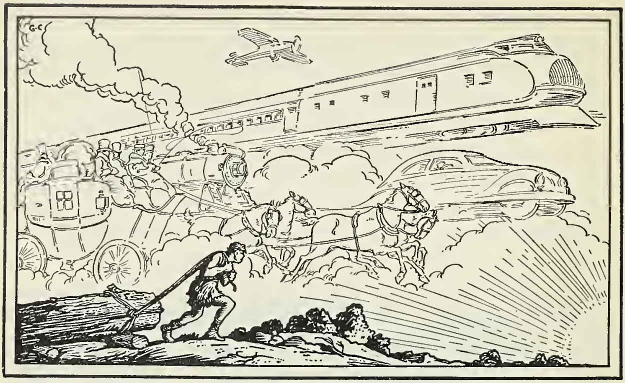
Keystone

THE USE OF FIRE

At the left is shown a cave man starting a fire by friction — a laborious task. At the right a modern oil-burning furnace, which furnishes plenty of heat with no trouble.

But still greater is our debt to prehistoric man. From him we inherit (through the ancient peoples above mentioned) the use of fire, clothing, language, and not to be omitted, the wheel.

The wheel is a simple device. Like the bow and arrow, it seems to have been invented by different peoples; but unlike the bow and arrow, it was never thrown into the discard and never can be. What would our land transportation be without it? And it is used everywhere — from the tiniest wrist watch to the throbbing



Some Uses of the Wheel

What would our land transportation be without it?

locomotive and the gigantic power house. One cause for the slow progress of the American Indians lay in the fact that they never found or invented the wheel.

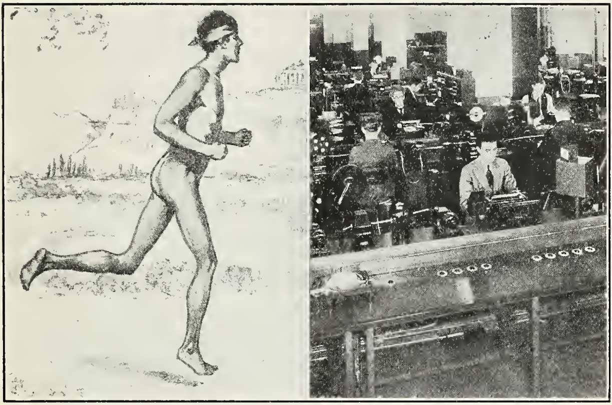
Every useful thing that has come down to us through the ages that have gone may be said to belong to the Living Past.

II. Medieval Progress

Isolation. — One striking contrast between ancient times and our time lies in the fact that the ancients lived in greater isolation. Their means of transportation and communication were very crude indeed. The nations saw little of one another. They were inbred, aloof, self-satisfied. A foreigner was called a barbarian, heathen, or pagan, all of which had a sinister and unfavorable meaning.

The nations traded very little with one another, knew little of one another, and seldom met except in war. It is very remarkable how unlike are the systems of writing in Egypt and Babylonia, each the growth of centuries. It is evident the two peoples scarcely knew one another. An ancient people did not tell their neighbors when they found a good thing. In our time a new invention, such as the automobile or the airplane, is quickly known over the world, and is copied by all. We use England's steam engine and the English use our telegraph and telephone. This copying of inventions accounts for our rapid progress. We learn from one another.

The Middle Ages. — After the breaking up of the ancient Oriental civilizations, the effacement of Greece, and the fall of Rome, the people of Europe were in a chaotic state for some hundreds of years. Slowly they divided into nations and thus we have the beginnings of the Spanish, French, and other nations (see Chapter XXI). The tendency of these new-born nations was to grow farther apart. The only thing that held them together at all was the Roman Catholic Church.



Greek Messenger   Modern Telegraph Room

There was little individual initiative. The people were narrow in their sympathies, group-conscious, but of international consciousness they knew almost nothing. The French and the Spanish, for example, came almost to hate each other, simply because they did not know each other.

Then came the Crusades, which, with all their disastrous effects, brought great benefit to Europe. The Crusades fostered a feeling of brotherhood among the peoples, opened up permanent trade relations with the East, and opened the eyes of Europe to a world vision unknown before.

Three Great Movements. — The Renaissance, the Reformation, and the French Revolution — three movements of very great importance in history — have all been treated with some fullness in earlier chapters.

The Church of the Middle Ages did not encourage freedom of thought in science, philosophy, or religion. Roger Bacon, though a monk, was imprisoned for many years because he was an advanced thinker in science. He was one of many.

The Renaissance was a gradual movement covering centuries. It was not anti-religious, but extra-religious. It emancipated the human mind; it awakened the soul to the wonders and beauties of nature; it brought freedom of the intellect and the right of personal initiative. But it did not bring freedom of conscience.

The Reformation won religious freedom, liberty of worship. Even the Inquisition which sought, in some countries, to continue the medieval practice of using force, gradually died out.

Neither the Renaissance nor the Reformation brought political freedom. Men were still ground down by tyrannical rulers. It was the French Revolution that became the turning point in striking the fetters from the common man, setting him on his feet and giving him the power of self-government, self-ownership.

Each of these three colossal movements had a profound and permanent effect on the future progress of the world. Each was an indispensable foundation stone in the great structure of modern civilization.[1]

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[1] These three great movements were of course supplemented by various others. The invention of printing (sec. 273) was of inestimable help to all three. The Industrial Revolution (Chapter XXXVI), by a great saving in human labor, added much to human welfare and standards of living in all civilized countries.

III. OUR OWN TIMES

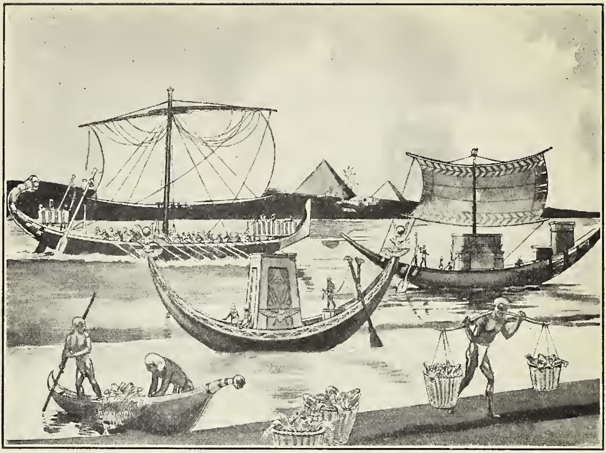
Nationalism and Internationalism. — It is quite right and proper for every American boy and girl who reads this book, and every man and woman in the country, to love this great American nation better than any other in the world. This is our home, our government, our school system. Here we shall live and die and here we shall be buried. Why should we not foster an intense love for our country?

This love of home and country we call Patriotism. But it is possible to overdo our patriotism. Some people love their country so intensely, so fanatically as to develop a hatred of other countries. This is often called Nationalism, which is merely overwrought, abnormal patriotism. Some selfish persons, who make profits from war, help to stir up such nationalism as has been the cause of many wars.

Some European people are afflicted with ultra-nationalism — and so are a few Americans. If you hear someone say that he is 100% American and wants this country to live unto itself and keep as clear as possible from foreign relations, you may guess that he is probably afflicted with a case of ultra-nationalism.

Internationalism is different. It is a state of mind in which to true patriotism is added a kind and friendly feeling toward other peoples. Why should not a true spirit of internationalism prevail with all of us? Other people may be as good as we are, and we are all children of the same God. We should never lose sight of the fact that we are part of the great world community.

International Trade. — One thing that brings the nations of the world nearer together is foreign commerce, trade with one another. Trading is a necessary part of our modern civilization, and we are inveterate traders. In ancient times there was little trading, each family supplying its own wants as far as possible. Even in our colonial days the New England farmer not only raised nearly all the food for his family, but also made his own wagons, furniture, harness, and shoes; his wife and daughters



Boats Used in Egyptian Trade

Ewing Galloway

A Modern Steamer in New York

made the clothing for the family. In the South, likewise, nearly everything needed was raised or made on the plantation. We have grown away from all that. The clothes that most of us wear were made by someone outside of the family. We enjoy our dinners, but most of us have produced few if any of the things we eat. We are certainly very dependent on one another, and the same is true of the nations.

Many of the things we use every day — bananas, coffee, tea, and the like — are not produced in this country. We must get them from abroad, by trading with foreign peoples. The international trade of the present day is very great. The sea is covered with ships carrying every imaginable sort of commodity from one country to another.

What are the advantages of international trade? It supplies us with commodities we need and cannot produce; it furnishes a market for our surplus goods; it gives employment to millions of people; above all, it makes us acquainted with the people of other lands, increases our feeling of friendship toward them, and impresses us with the fact that the world is one great community and that we are a part of it.

The Movies. — The writer of this book has seen the mountains of Africa, its coast lines, and its deserts, but the most vivid impression of that great continent he ever received was in an American city, in a moving picture show. A man and his wife, armed with a movie camera, had spent years in the jungles of Africa, taking pictures of wild animals in their native haunts.

The moving picture is a product of the twentieth century. Within two decades it has grown to be one of the greatest industries of the world. It is true that some of the movie films are objectionable and not to be commended; but many are highly entertaining and educative, a fine supplement to the study of history.

What can I see in the movies? I can see the people in every part of the world at work and at play. Here are seen Greenlanders in their furs and snowshoes trekking across a glacier; Hottentots in their home life in the African jungle; a crowded street in Tokyo, Japan; men at work digging a canal in Australia; a group of mountain climbers half way up the Matterhorn. Still more wonderful, I see the beat of the human heart and the blood coursing through the veins; I can see the sprouting of a seed and its growth into a plant, putting forth buds and leaves and flowers.

Burton Holmes, from Ewing Galloway

TAKING A CLOSE-UP FOR A MOVING PICTURE

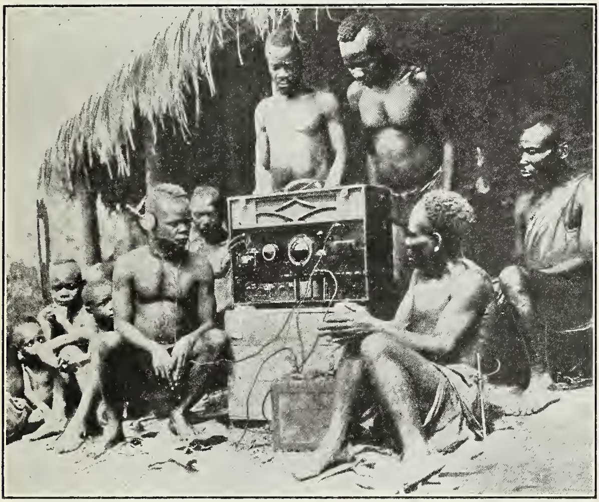
In Bali, in the Dutch East Indies, the doings of a native orchestra are being photographed for the movies.

All these and a thousand other things I see in the movies. Since the invention of the "talkies" I can also hear the conversation and the music accompanying the scene before me. I can see the President of the United States or the King of England standing life-size on the screen, watch his expression as he speaks, and hear every word he says, sounding just as he actually says it.

As a factor in our modern culture, as an internationalizer, the moving picture is a wonderful invention.

The Radio. — Still more wonderful is the radio. It will probably not be disputed that the radio is the most marvelous of all man's inventions.

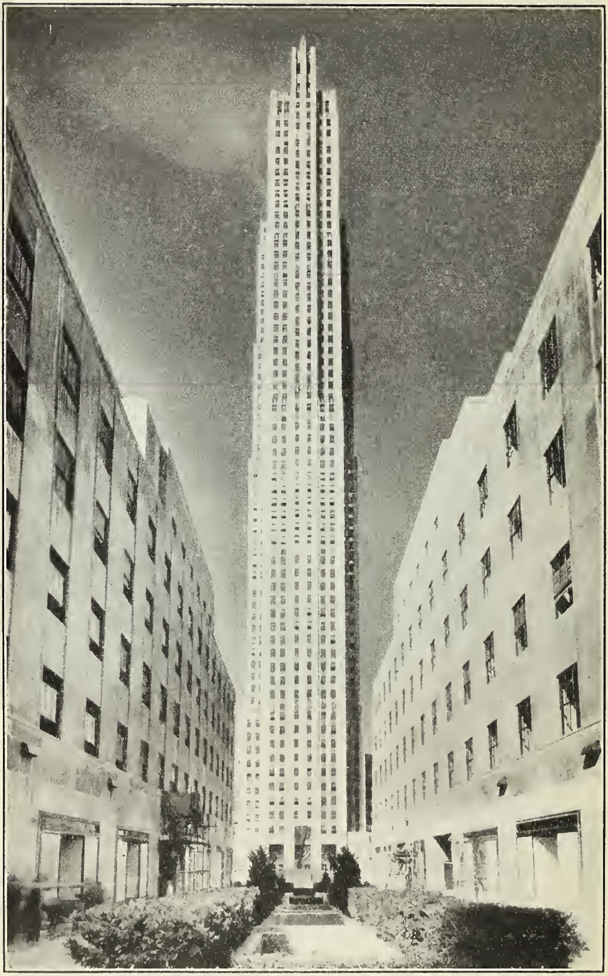
In the room where I now sit the space is aquiver with invisible silent radio waves in many languages from all parts of the civilized world. If I tune in on my receiver, it will pick out the waves suitable for it and reproduce the sound of the voice or the instrument that produces them. The waves travel with the speed of light (186,000 miles a second) and if my receiver calls for a medium wave-length, it will receive at least two million every second. If I am in New York listening to an orator in Houston, Texas, I hear each word he utters before people in his audience hear him.



Ewing Galloway

Pygmies Listening to the Radio

No magician ever even tried to produce anything so wonderful as the radio. I can sit in my room and hear the voice of my fellow-



Wide World

A SEVENTY-STORY BUILDING IN RADIO CITY, NEW YORK man on the opposite side of the globe. I hear "Big Ben," the great clock in London, striking the midnight hour at the approach of New Year's Day. I hear the roar and thunder of an active volcano in Hawaii. Admiral Byrd and his men, buried in the Antarctic night of 1934, listened daily to concerts in New York or Los Angeles, and talked to their families in Chicago and in Washington.

A few years ago a German captain steered an airship around the world. That in itself was a remarkable thing to do, but still more wonderful was the fact that he talked every day with the various capital cities of the world. On Armistice Day, 1934, I listened to peace talks from London, Prague, Tokyo, and Rio de Janeiro.

What are the advantages of radio? Certainly it will prove of immense advantage in making the peoples of the various nations better acquainted with one another, and better acquaintance means more friendly feeling. If I listen to a musical program from Havana, I feel more kindly toward the Cubans, in spite of their disorder and turmoil. An address from Montreal gives me a deeper feeling of kinship with the Canadians.

In fact the radio, like the movies, makes for international consciousness, which will contribute greatly toward peace among the nations. If we all felt a universal brotherhood, war would more surely become a thing of the past. If we like people we do not want to kill them. Everybody ought to feel a sympathetic interest in everybody else. We must not live for ourselves alone, nor even for our country alone. We must be citizens of the world.

The Future. — No careful historian will venture far in predicting the future. But this anybody can predict: The future will be in a great measure what the people of today make it. We may learn from the lessons of the past; but we cannot live with the past. We must grapple with the things of today and lay our plans for the future.

We, the American people, are still in the formative period. The many racial strains from which our ancestors came will, like the rivulets that form a river, blend into one and we shall become a homogeneous people. The modern Englishman, as a rule, does not know how much Saxon, Danish, or Norman blood courses through his veins and he does not care. He is just an Englishman. So the future American will forget whether he is descended from English, German, Dutch, Scandinavian, French, or Italian ancestry, or from all of them, nor will he care. His pride will be that he is an American.

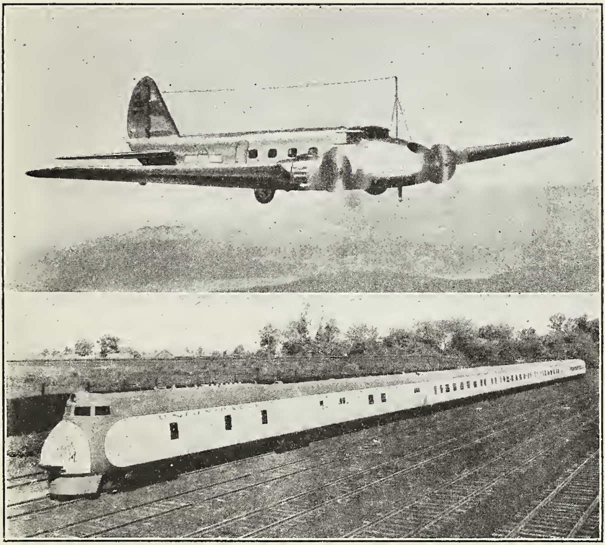
What part will our great nation play in the future life of the world? Certainly our advantages are greater than those of any other nation, and our sense of responsibility should be equally great. In at least two respects we have surpassed all other nations, past or present: in useful inventions and in furnishing to the world an example of self-government on a large scale. But perhaps it is still more important that we are a peace-loving people. We are conscious of the strength of the giant, but we do not wish to use it. If we were as warlike as ancient Rome or Assyria, how frail would be the hold on liberty of the other nations of this hemisphere! Surely no other country could measure up with us as a potential military power. But what of it? We do not wish to play the bully. We have no desire for conquest.

We should be, and nearly all of us are, intensely devoted to peace. Why is this so? It is true a great ocean east of us and a great ocean west of us, with the nearest possible rival 3000 miles beyond the sea, would give us a feeling of security if we felt the need of it. But the chief reason is not found in our sense of security. It lies rather in our democratic consciousness, our interest in the individual. We believe that a young man has a right to live his life, to make the best of himself. He has a right to his career. He should not be cut down in his youth by the war god.

What can we do for future world peace? We can give our voice, however feeble it may be, to the side of peace whenever and wherever possible. We can cultivate a friendly feeling toward all peoples, and this will be enhanced by international trade and travel and, as before stated, by the movies and the radio. The nations should meet in friendly conference from time to time to talk over their differences and settle them without war. They have all the machinery for such conferences, ready made, in the League of Nations.

Our age will leave its mark in the records of mankind. It has given the world the airplane, the moving picture, the radio, and if we go back a few decades, we may include the automobile, the electric light, and the telephone. All these are of permanent value. Not one of them can ever be dispensed with in the future. All of these, with the exception of the automobile and the radio, to which various nations contributed, are of American origin.

As the years and the centuries unroll it is certain that this age in which we live will forever be remembered as a conspicuous and necessary part of the Living Past.



United Air Lines *R. I. Nesmith and Associates*

Coast to Coast Airplane, and a Streamlined Train

WORLD CHRONOLOGY

NOTE. — Only the most important dates are here given. Dates pertaining to American history (except a few of world importance), and to many of the great figures in art, literature, and other lines of achievement are omitted. Those of greatest importance in this table are printed in heavy-faced type.

DATES B.C.

4241 Egyptian calendar devised.
About 3000–2700 Age of the Egyptian pyramid builders.
About 2100 Hammurabi makes Babylon supreme in the Euphrates Valley.
About 1900 Abraham founds the Hebrew nation.
About 1200–606 Supremacy of Assyria.
About 1100 (?) Trojan War.
About 1050 David becomes king of Palestine.
776 First Greek Olympiad.
753 Founding of Rome (legendary).
722 First captivity of the Jews.
606 Fall of Nineveh.
594 Solon frames an Athenian law code.
586 Jews carried to Babylon.
558 Cyrus founds the Persian Empire.
490 Battle of Marathon.
480 Battles of Thermopylæ and Salamis.
429 Death of Pericles.
404 Athens surrenders to Sparta.
400 Retreat of the Ten Thousand under Xenophon.
399 Death of Socrates.
390 Rome captured by the Gauls.
331 Battle of Arbela.
323 Death of Alexander the Great.
322 Death of Aristotle and of Demosthenes.
290 Romans conquer the Samnites.
264–241 First Punic War.
218–201 Second Punic War.
216 Battle of Cannæ.
207 Battle of the Metaurus.
202 Defeat of Hannibal at Zama.
149–146 Third Punic War.
146 Destruction of Carthage and of Corinth.
133–121 Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus attempt Roman reforms.
106 Birth of Cicero.
63 Palestine conquered by Pompey becomes Roman province. Catiline's Conspiracy.
58–50 Cæsar conquers Gaul.
44 Assassination of Julius Cæsar.
31 Battle of Actium.
27 Augustus first Roman emperor.
4 Birth of Jesus Christ.

Dates A.D.

9 Roman legions defeated by Arminius.
64 Burning of Rome and persecution of Christians under Nero.
70 Jerusalem destroyed by Titus.
79 Destruction of Herculaneum and Pompeii by eruption of Vesuvius.
161–180 Marcus Aurelius emperor.
284–305 Diocletian emperor.
312–337 Constantine the Great, first Christian emperor.
325 Council of Nicæa.
378 Battle of Adrianople.
410 Rome taken by Goths under Alaric.
449 Beginning of the Anglo-Saxon conquest of Britain.
451 Attila and the Huns defeated at battle of Chalons.
455 Rome plundered by the Vandals under Genseric.
476 "Fall" of the Roman Empire of the West.
481–511 Reign of Clovis.
534 Vandal kingdom overthrown by Belisarius.
565 Death of Emperor Justinian.
568 Lombards invade Italy.
590–604 Gregory the Great pope.
597 Augustine introduces Christianity into England.
622 The Hegira (Mohammed's flight from Mecca).
711–714 Conquest of Spain by the Saracens.
732 Saracens defeated by Charles Martel in battle of Tours.
754 Pepin grants the Pope temporal power. Death of Saint Boniface, apostle to Germany.
768–814 Reign of Charlemagne.
800 Charlemagne crowned emperor (Christmas Day).
827 Kingdom of England founded by Egbert.
843 Treaty of Verdun.
871–901 Reign of Alfred the Great.
936–973 Reign of Otto the Great.
1016 Canute becomes king of England.
1066 Battle of Hastings.
1073–1085 Gregory VII (Hildebrand) pope.
1096–1099 First crusade.
1189–1199 Reign of Richard Cœur de Lion.
1198–1216 Innocent III pope.
1215 Magna Charta signed at Runnymede.
1265 First English Parliament. Birth of Dante.
1270 Last crusade. Death of Louis IX of France.
1346 Battle of Crécy. First use of gunpowder in war.
1348 The Black Death.
1356 Battle of Poitiers.
1381 Wat Tyler Insurrection.
1386 Battle of Sempach.
1397 Union of Calmar, — Denmark, Sweden, and Norway united.
1414 Council of Constance.
1415 Battle of Agincourt. John Hus burned at the stake.
1431 Joan of Arc burned at the stake.
About 1450 Invention of printing from movable type by Gutenberg.

1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks. Close of the Hundred Years' War.
1455–1485 Wars of the Roses.
1462–1505 Reign of Ivan the Great of Russia.
1483 Birth of Martin Luther.
1492 America discovered by Columbus. Conquest of Granada and unification of Spain.
1517 Beginning of the Reformation.
1519 Charles V becomes emperor. Death of Leonardo da Vinci.
1520 Death of Raphael.
1521 Diet of Worms.
1530 Augsburg Confession.
1534 England breaks with the Roman Church. Loyola founds the Order of Jesuits.
1543 Copernicus publishes his theory of the solar system.
1555 Peace of Augsburg.
1558–1603 Reign of Elizabeth.
1564 Birth of Shakespeare. Death of Michelangelo.
1571 Defeat of the Turks at the naval battle of Lepanto.
1572 Massacre of St. Bartholomew.
1579 Founding of the Dutch Republic by William the Silent.
1588 Defeat of the Spanish Armada.
1598 Edict of Nantes.
1607 English settle Jamestown.
1611 Authorized version of the English Bible.
1616 Death of Shakespeare and of the Spanish author Cervantes.
1618–1648 Thirty Years' War.
1628 Petition of Right.
1632 Battle of Lützen. Death of Gustavus Adolphus.
1642 Death of Richelieu.
1642–1649 Civil War in England.
1643–1715 Reign of Louis XIV.
1648 Treaty of Westphalia.
1653–1658 Cromwell Lord Protector.
1660 Restoration of Charles II.
1666 Great fire in London.
1674 Death of Milton.
1685 Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.
1687 Newton publishes his theory of gravitation.
1688 Revolution in England. James II succeeded by William III.
1689 Bill of Rights.
1689–1725 Reign of Peter the Great.
1690 Battle of the Boyne.
1692 Battle of La Hogue.
1701 Prussia becomes a kingdom.
1702–1713 War of the Spanish Succession.
1703 Founding of St. Petersburg, now Petrograd.
1707 Union of England and Scotland as the kingdom of Great Britain.
1709 Battle of Poltava
1713 Peace of Utrecht.
1740–1786 Reign of Frederick the Great.
1756–1763 Seven Years' War.
1762–1796 Reign of Catherine the Great.

1757 Battle of Plassey, India.
About 1770 Invention of the steam engine.
1772 First Partition of Poland.
1775–1783 American Revolution.
1789 French Revolution begins
1791 Death of Mirabeau.
1792 First French Republic.
1793 King Louis XVI beheaded. Reign of Terror. Second Partition of Poland.
1795 Third Partition of Poland.
1800 Union of Ireland with Great Britain.
1804 Napoleon I crowned emperor of France.
1805 Battle of Trafalgar. Battle of Austerlitz.
1815 Battle of Waterloo. Congress of Vienna.
1823 Monroe Doctrine promulgated.
1829 Greece wins independence.
1830 Second Revolution in France. Belgium independent.
1832 Reform in the British Parliament.
About 1840 Morse invents the electric telegraph.
1837–1901 Reign of Victoria.
1846 Repeal of English corn laws.
1848 Third Revolution in France. Second French Republic.
1848–1916 Reign of Francis Joseph.
1852 Louis Napoleon becomes emperor of France.
1854 Commercial treaty between the United States and Japan.
1854–1856 Crimean War.
1857 Great Mutiny in India.
1858 First Atlantic submarine cable laid.
1859–1860 Most of Italy united under the leadership of Cavour; other parts acquired in 1866, 1870, and 1918.
1864 Defeat of Denmark by Prussia and Austria.
1866 Seven Weeks' War. Prussia defeats Austria.
1867 Dominion of Canada established. Fall of French dominion in Mexico. Second Reform in British Parliament.
1869 Suez Canal completed.
1870–1871 Franco-Prussian War.
1870 Third French Republic. Vatican Council at Rome.
1871 German Empire founded.
1875 Great Britain acquires control of the Suez Canal. New French constitution adopted.
1876 Invention of the telephone.
1878 Congress of Berlin.
1881 Assassination of Tsar Alexander II.
1882 Great Britain acquires control of Egypt.
1882 Italy joins Germany and Austria in forming the Triple Alliance.
1890 Resignation of Bismarck.
1892 Death of Tennyson.
1893 Gladstone's Irish Home Rule bill defeated in the House of Lords.
1894 War between China and Japan.
1895 Kiel Canal opened. Discovery of X rays, by Röntgen.
1896 Revival of the Olympic games. Turkish massacres in Armenia.
1898 War between the United States and Spain. Death of Gladstone. Discovery of radium, by the Curies.

- 1899 First Hague Conference.
- 1899–1902 Boer War in South Africa.
- 1900 Boxer uprising in China.
- 1901 Federal Commonwealth of Australia formed.
- 1902 Alliance between Great Britain and Japan.
- 1904–1905 War between Russia and Japan.
- 1905 Separation of church and state in France. Uprising in Russia. Moroccan conference at Algeciras. Separation of Norway from Sweden. First long flights of the Wright airplane.
- 1907 Second Hague Conference. Wireless communication across the Atlantic established.
- 1908 Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- 1909 Abdul-Hamid, Turkish sultan, deposed. South African Union bill and Irish land bill pass the British Parliament.
- 1910 Japan annexes Korea.
- 1911 Act limiting Lords' veto power passed by British Parliament. Revolution in China.
- 1911–1912 War between Italy and Turkey.
- 1912 China becomes a republic. Italy annexes Tripoli. Balkan War — Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro against Turkey. Peace May 30, 1913.
- 1913 Second Balkan War.
- 1914 June 28. Assassination of the Austrian Archduke Francis Ferdinand.
  - July 28. Austria declares war on Serbia.
  - Aug. 1. Germany declares war on Russia.
  - Aug. 3. Germany declares war on France.
  - Aug. 4. Great Britain declares war on Germany.
  - Aug. 15. Panama Canal opened.
  - Aug. 23. Japan enters the war.
  - Sept. 6–10. Battle of the Marne.
  - Nov. 3. Turkey enters the war.
- 1915 Feb.–Aug. Allied attack on the Dardanelles.
  - May 7. Sinking of the *Lusitania*.
  - May 23. Italy enters the war.
  - Aug. 5. Germans capture Warsaw.
  - Oct. 14. Bulgaria enters the war.
- 1916 Feb. 21. Battle of Verdun begins.
  - May 31. Naval battle of Jutland.
  - Aug. 27. Roumania enters the war.
  - Dec. 6. David Lloyd George succeeds Asquith as British premier.
- 1917 Feb. 1. Ruthless submarine campaign begins.
  - March 11. Bagdad captured by the British.
  - March 11–15. Russian Revolution; Tsar Nicholas II abdicates.
  - April 6. United States declares war on Germany.
  - Oct. 14. Great Austro-German drive in northern Italy begins.
  - Nov. 7. Russian Bolsheviki seize Petrograd and depose Kerensky.
  - Dec. 10. Jerusalem surrenders to the British.
  - Dec. 7. United States declares war on Austria-Hungary.
- 1918 March 3. Brest-Litovsk treaty between Germany and Russia.
  - March 21. Great German drive begins on Western Front.
  - March 29. General Foch appointed commander of all the Allied armies.
  - July 18. Allied counter-offensive begins on Western Front.
  - Sept. 12. Americans take the St. Mihiel salient.

1918 Sept. 26. Beginning of the Meuse-Argonne battle.
Sept. 29. Surrender of Bulgaria.
Oct. 31. Surrender of Turkey.
Nov. 4. Armistice with Austria.
Nov. 11. Armistice with Germany.
The war resulted in establishing Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Finland, and other new nations.
1919 June 28. Peace treaty with Germany signed at Versailles.
1920 Jan. 10. Treaty with Germany put into effect.
Sept.-Oct. Great victory of the Poles in repelling Bolshevist invasion.
Nov. 15. First meeting of the Assembly of the League of Nations. Membership increased from 41 nations in 1920 to 52 in 1922.
1921 Nov. 12. Meeting of the Washington Arms Conference.
Dec. Treaty for Irish Free State.
1922 Sept. Defeat of the Greek army by the Turks; burning of Smyrna; deposition of Constantine of Greece.
Oct. Resignation of Lloyd George as Prime Minister.
Fascisti assume control of Italy.
Nov. 15. British parliamentary election; supports Andrew Bonar Law as Prime Minister.
1923 Jan. 11. Occupation of the Ruhr Valley by French and Belgian troops.
May 22. Stanley Baldwin succeeds Law as British Prime Minister.
Dec. J. Ramsay MacDonald succeeds Baldwin as British Prime Minister.
1924 Aug. The London Conference adopts the Dawes Plan for German reparations; later replaced by the Young Plan.
Oct. British election; defeat of the Labor party by the Conservatives. Baldwin succeeds MacDonald as Premier.
1925 Oct. Treaty of Locarno.
1928 Aug. 27. Briand-Kellogg treaty is signed at Paris.
1929 May. MacDonald again premier.
1931 April. Spain becomes a republic.
Aug. MacDonald forms Coalition Cabinet.
1931–1932 Conflict between Japan and China.
1932 Feb. First meeting of the Disarmament Conference.
April. Von Hindenburg reëlected president of Germany.
1933 Jan. 30. Hitler chancellor of Germany.
1934 Feb. 17. King Albert of Belgium killed by falling from a cliff.
Aug. 2. Death of President von Hindenburg.
Aug. 25. Chancellor Dollfuss of Austria assassinated.
Nov. 9. Assassination of Alexander, king of Yugoslavia.
1935 Jan. 13. The Saar votes to return to Germany.
June. Baldwin succeeds MacDonald as British premier.
Oct. War begun between Italy and Ethiopia.
1936 Jan. 20. George V is succeeded by Edward VIII as King of Great Britain.
March. Rhineland demilitarized zone is reoccupied by German troops.
July. Civil war begun in Spain.
Oct. Belgium ends alliance with France.

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Diacritic marks: ā as in *late*; ā̍ as in *senate*; ă as in *fat*; ä as in *far*; ȧ as in *last*; â as in *care*; a̤ as in *fall*; ē as in *me*; ê as in *return*; ĕ as in *met, berry*; ẽ as in *over, term*; ī as in *ice*; ĭ as in *tin*; ᴋ, German *ch*; ɴ the French nasal; ō as in *note*; ō̍ as in *obey*; ŏ as in *not*; ô as in *for*; õ as in *soft*; o͞o as in *food*; o͝o as in *good*; ū as in *tune*; ū̍ as in *unite*; ŭ as in *nut*; û as in *fur*; ü, French *u*; ȳ as in *my*; y̆ as in *lady*.

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